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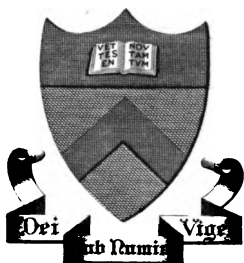
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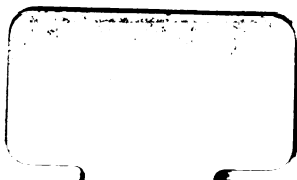
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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,
ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive*,

M,DCCC,XXI.

With an APPENDIX.

"C'est une grande folie de vouloir être sage tout seul." LA ROCHEFOUCAULT.

VOLUME XCVI.



L O N D O N:

Printed by A. and R. Spottiswoode, Printers-Street;

And sold by J. PORTER, Successor to the late T. BECKET,
in Pall Mall.

M,DCCC,XXI.



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ERRATA

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- Page 21. l. 28. for 'succeed,' read *succeeds*.
71. l. 27. dele the comma after 'constables.'
219. Note, for 'would be more correct than *fundamento*,' read,
should be fundamento.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1821.

ART. I. *Travels in Georgia, Persia, Armenia, Ancient Babylonia, &c. &c. during the Years 1817, 1818, 1819, and 1820.* By Sir Robert Ker Porter. With numerous Engravings of Portraits, Costumes, Antiquities, &c. In 2 Vols. Vol. I. 4to. 4l. 14s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

As, in a long journey, it is unreasonable to expect the landscape to be every where engaging, so would it be unjust to require of a large quarto that it should be uniformly interesting. In a faithful transcript of nature, deformity must be copied as well as beauty; and in the narrative of an extensive series of real incidents, dullness and entertainment will succeed each other as naturally as daylight and darkness. It is fortunate, however, that, in the bulky work which we are now considering, these proportions are too nicely adjusted to exhaust the patience of the reader; and, we think, he will not hesitate to admit that hill and valley, city and solitude, morals, politics, and manners, are reflected through the descriptions in as rapid a succession as could be consistent with their several claims to an impartial and attentive consideration. We might, indeed, expect (or at least hope) that the author's known talents as an artist, besides his acquired repute as a traveller, would induce and enable him to preserve harmony in his colouring, and a general *keeping* throughout his delineation. Our readers are not unacquainted with the acquirements of Sir Robert Porter, and we doubt not that they will follow us with pleasure in our survey of the volume which he has here presented to us.

The author commences his journey from St. Petersburg for Odessa, and the early part of the book introduces us to a Russian plain called a Steppe; or an extent of flat country for several hundred miles, chiefly uncultivated, but sometimes diversified with corn and windmills, and with thousands of tumuli,—those mansions of the dead of ages, which overspread the face of that empire to the shores of the Black Sea.

'The first idea which strikes the spectator is, that he is in some famous field of battle, vast enough for the world to have been lost

on it; but Herodotus will not allow us to appropriate these remote regions of sepulture to the casual circumstance of war. He declares them regular places of interment for whole nations; and particularly mentions, that whenever the Scythians lost a king, or a chief, they assembled in great multitudes to solemnize his obsequies; and, after making the tour of certain districts of the kingdom with the corpse, they stopped in the country of the Gerrhi, a people who lived in the most distant parts of Scythia, and over whose lands the sepulchres were spread. A large quadrangular excavation was then made in the earth (in dimensions more like a hall of banquet than a grave), and within it was placed a sort of bier bearing the body of the deceased prince. Daggers were laid at various distances around him, and the whole covered with pieces of wood and branches of the willow-tree. In another part of the same immense tomb, were deposited the remains of one of the late sovereign's concubines, who had been previously strangled; also his favorite servant, his baker, cook, horsekeeper, and even the horses themselves; all followed him to the grave, and were laid in the same tomb with his most valuable property, and, above all, a sufficient number of golden goblets. This done, the hollow was soon filled and surmounted with earth; each person present being ambitious to do his part in raising the pile that was to honour his departed lord.' —

'Probably the smaller tumuli, commonly seen encircling a large one, may contain the bodies of certain self-devoted members of the deceased great man's family, who yet did not consider themselves high enough to share his actual grave; or, perhaps, of his guards, who held it their duty to follow their master into the other world.'

Another interesting circumstance is a 'grass fire,' a calamity almost peculiar to the farmer of the Ukraine.

'This terrible accident generally happens by the carelessness of bullock-drivers, or of persons belonging to caravans of merchandise, who halt for the night on the open plain; and, on departing in the morning, neglect to extinguish their fires. Wind, or some other casualty, brings the hot embers in contact with the high and dry grass of the Steppe; it bursts into flame, and burns on, devouring as it goes with a fury almost unquenchable. That which I now beheld arose from negligence of this kind, and soon extended itself over a space of forty wersts*; continuing its ravages for many days, consuming all the outstanding corn, ricks, hovels, in short every thing, in its devastating path: — the track it left was dreadful!'

We would present our readers with a sketch of the condition of the Russian peasantry, which would enable them to oppose to its gloomy character the happy privileges of English

* The author does not explain the word *werst*: but we understand that it means a distance equal to about two-thirds of an English mile.

liberty, but that the comparison is not new. Passing the tomb of Howard the philanthropist between Nicolaieff and Khereson; and proceeding over a *Steppe*, of which the uniform aspect of barrenness is broken only by groups of thistles seven feet high; we reach the city of Tcherkask, the capital of the Donskoy country, on a visit to Count Platoff, the Attaman or Lord of the Don Cossacks. The details of this visit afford the most pleasing subjects of contemplation; in their relation to a hero now departed, who is represented both as the father and the commander of his people, and to the condition of men who were fortunate enough to be subject to a government so paternal in a land amply abounding with the means of subsistence. The subject derives much additional spirit and variety from the circumstance of a visit, at the same period, from the Grand-duke Michael to the Attaman, which naturally called forth all the splendor and affluence of which the city was susceptible.

We now come to a most magnificent feature of the narrative, the passage of the Caucasus; and we will introduce our readers to the first aspect of the mountains in the following extract:

'No pen can express the emotion which the sudden burst of this sublime range excited in my mind. I had seen almost all the wildest and most gigantic chains in Portugal and Spain, but none gave me an idea of the vastness and grandeur of that I now contemplated. This seemed nature's bulwark between the nations of Europe and of Asia. Elborus, amongst whose rocks tradition reports Prometheus to have been chained, stood, clad in primeval snows, a world of mountains in itself, towering above all, its white and radiant summits mingling with the heavens; while the pale and countless heads of the subordinate range, high in themselves, but far beneath its altitude, stretched along the horizon, till lost to sight in the soft fleeces of the clouds. Several rough and huge masses of black rock rose from the intermediate plain; their size was mountainous; but being viewed near the mighty Caucasus, and compared with them, they appeared little more than hills; yet the contrast was fine, their dark brows giving greater effect to the dazzling summits which towered above them.'

The traveller has here to prepare himself for the dangers peculiarly incident to mountain-districts, of a wild and savage character. At the foot of the range, he hears from the Governor of Georgewesk many particulars relative to the banditti of those elevated regions. It appears that the savage cruelties, practised by some tribes of these predatory barbarians on their captives, inspire a terror during this journey so intense as to absorb every other feeling; and to deprive

the picturesque sublimities, with which the scenery abounds, of all power to extort the admiration which they deserve. The author's farther acquaintance with Caucasus produces this poetical description.

The road lay over a continuation of the extensive plain, part of which we had crossed the day before: it bore a direction due east. On our right rolled the Terek, breaking over its stony bed, and washing with a surge, rather than a flowing stream, the rocky bases of the mountains which rise in progressive acclivities from its bold shores. The day had begun to clear about noon, and the dark curtain of vapours, which had so long shut these stupendous hills from my sight, broke away into a thousand masses of fleecy clouds; and, as they gradually glided downwards, exhaled into ether, or separated across the brows of the mountains, the vast piles of Caucasus were presented to my view; a world of themselves; rocky, rugged, and capped with snow; stretching east and west beyond the reach of vision, and shooting far into the skies.—It was a sight to make the senses pause; to oppress even respiration, by the weight of the impression on the mind, of such vast overpowering sublimity.

The proud head of Elborus was yet far distant; but it rose in hoary majesty above all, the sovereign of these giant mountains; finely contrasting its silvery diadem, the snow of ages, with the blue misty brows of its immediate subject-range; and they, being yet partially shrouded in the dissolving masses of white cloud, derived increased beauty from comparisons with the bold and black forms of the lower mountains, nearer the plain, whose rude and towering tops, and almost perpendicular sides, sublimely carry the astonished eye along the awful picture; creating those feelings of terrific admiration, to which words can give no name.

At Wlady Caucasus, the key of the celebrated pass into Georgia, the heavy part of the convoy, and the piece of artillery which had hitherto protected it, were abandoned; and the travellers proceeded with more celerity under the escort of about forty soldiers, an officer, and a few Cossacks. They arrived at Derial, on the river Terek, a Russian post situated at the bottom of the gigantic chasm of that name, and overhung by such enormous masses of rock as to make its situation terrible. The approach to it for a considerable way is through a subterraneous passage cut in the solid rock, and the pass is here not more than thirty yards across: which provision of nature, agreeing with the vestiges along its borders, leaves no doubt on the mind of the traveller that, from earliest times, this has been one of the main doors of communication with the nations of the North; and he supports his opinion with a quotation from Pliny. This chasm rises from the river's brink upwards of a thousand feet, its sides being broken into clefts and projections dark and frowning; so high, so close,

class, and stretching so far over, that even at mid-day the whole is covered with a shadow bordering on twilight. The elevation of the neighbouring mountains is not less than 3786 feet; which may be received as the common height of nearly the whole range, east and west, with the exception of Elborus and Kasibek. The party did not arrive at a spot particularly favourable for the shelter of banditti without glimpses of wild groupes of those adventurers, scrambling high among the rocks, and heightening the *Salvator Rosa* character of the scene. Before the practice of sending military literally to beat the bushes and clear the way, this road was one continued scene of rapine and bloodshed; the robbers having facilities of approach and retreat inconceivable to those who are unacquainted with the habits of these mountain-savages. Sir R. Porter was prevented from indulging his inclination to take sketches of this imposing scenery, by the authority of the commanding officer of the convoy; who was well aware of the danger that threatened stragglers in the sudden spring of ambushed banditti. The apex of the mountain was attained through all the difficulties and hardships of snow, rain, and cutting winds, which rendered the roads almost impassable.

Nothing can paint the terrific situation of the road which opened before us at Good Gara. It seemed little better than a scramble along the perpendicular face of a rock, whence a fall must be instant destruction. The path itself was not in fact more than from ten to twelve feet wide, and this wound round the mountain during the whole circuit, with a precipice at its side of many hundred fathoms deep. While pursuing this perilous way, we saw the heads of high hills, villages, and spreading woods, at a depth so far beneath, the eye could not dwell on it for a moment without dizziness ensuing. At the bottom of the green abyss, the Aragua appeared like a fine silver line. I dared not trust myself to gaze long on a scene, at once so sublime and so painfully terrible. But leading my horse as near as I could to that side of the road whence the Good Gara towered to the sky, and therefore opposite to that which edged the precipice, I looked with anxiety on my fellow-travellers, who were clinging to the stony projections, in their advance up this horrid escalade. What we dreaded most was, that the horses which drew the carriages might make a false step, or get frightened; in either case, nothing could save them from rolling down the precipice. But my admiration was great as my surprise, on witnessing the steadiness and total absence of personal fear, with which the soldiers kept close to my calèche at scarcely a foot distance from the brink of the abyss, supporting the wheels with their hands, lest the loose or large stones which cumbered the path might throw it off its balance. A length of full three English miles, we dragged on in this way, ere we durst lay aside our apprehensions,

visions, or feel that free respiration which our giddy elevation had repressed. But, perilous as we found this desperate ascent, it was nothing to the dangers of those who dare it in the winter. At that season, the whole, buried in snow, appears almost perpendicular with the side of the mountain. It can never, then, be attempted but on foot; and on the arrival of travellers, soldiers or natives precede them, in order to find the road, and to form a path through the thick untrodden surface. They ascend in a string; the first advances with a rope round his waist, which is held, at different lengths, by his companions as they follow one after another. This is done to prevent the leader's destruction, should his foot slip in the uncertain track. But notwithstanding all this care, no winter passes, without numbers of soldiers, Cossacks, and natives, besides travellers, falling over this dreadful steep.

Appalling as seem the dangers of this expedition in the details of the present narrative, we shudder to think of the greater horrors to which travellers were exposed from those natural accidents, common to all seasons in mountain-regions, designated by the name of *Avalanche*. All shapes of ruin shrink into insignificance, when compared with this dreadful and gigantic engine of destruction.

In the month of November, 1817, the pale summit of the mountain Kasibek, on the side which shelves down into the dark valley between Derial and the village which bears the mountain's name, had been seen abruptly to move. In an instant it was launched forward; and nothing was now beheld for the shaken snow, and dreadful over-shadowing of the falling destruction. The noise that accompanied it was the most stunning, bursting, and rolling onward, of all that must make death certain. As the avalanche rushed on, huge masses of rock, rifted from the mountain's side, were driving before it; and the snows, and ice of centuries, pouring down in immense shattered forms, and rending heaps, fell, like the fall of an earthquake; covering, from human eye, villages, valleys, and people! What an awful moment, when all was still!—when the dreadful cries of man and beast were heard no more; and the tremendous avalanche lay a vast, motionless, white shroud on all around.

The universal fame and remote antiquity of Caucasus give rise to some just and interesting reflections from the pen of Sir R. P., who observes:

This quarter of the globe has justly been styled the cradle of mankind; and the long recollections of the land of their origin, to be found amongst the people of countries the most distant, even in their nursery tales, might be one minor proof of all the dispersed families of the earth having sprung from this patriarchal home. From the earliest times, we find the regions between the Euxine and Caspian Seas to be the noted theatre of the most heroic and marvellous actions. Events are recorded, in which not men only, but

but preternatural and supernatural beings played conspicuous parts. In the east, and in the west, we hear and read of the mountains of Caucasus, and their surrounding countries; in history, in fable, and in poets' dreams.

The picture of the huge and savage Elborus, the rock to which Prometheus is said to have been chained, was shadowed by Eschylus; and in his "Prometheus bound" we find delineated the magnitude, sublimity, and terrors, of that "stony girdle of the world," that quarry of the globe, whence all its other mountains may seem to have been chiselled: such are its wonderous abysses, its vast and caverned sides, and summits of every form and attitude, mingling with the clouds. According to the superstitions of the natives, powerful genii or demons, with their attendant benign or evil spirits, still hold their courts among the ice of Kasibek, the snows of Elborus, and the caverned summits of the less towering Caucasus; and so great is the terror among some of the people of the valleys, that no bribe could induce them to incur, by attempting to ascend, the cruel torments denounced by these spirits on any rash mortal who should dare to explore their haunts.

The situation of Tiflis, its buildings and baths, with the government, character, costume, and manners of the Georgians and Circassians, are all particularized in a manner which furnishes an agreeable banquet of information. Our sympathies were strongly excited by the condition of the Georgians. Once brave, industrious, and happy, they fell under the yoke of barbarous invaders; and, being deprived of all hope, and of every motive to exertion, by the oppression and avarice of successive masters, they at length sank disparagingly into sloth, ignorance, and poverty. Some years since, they were annexed to Russia; and the improvement, which has already resulted from this change, affords every reason to hope that, under a wise government, the Georgian, both noble and peasant, will yet lift up his head in pristine dignity, and again move by the impulses of the ancient Albanian spirit. At present, the luxuriant fertility of the Kabetian vales, covered with all the prodigality of nature, form a striking and reproachful contrast to that moral degeneracy of character which is still abandoned to slavery, indolence, and insensibility.

In following the traveller through Armenia, we must pause with reverence at the foot of Ararat. This awful monument of the antediluvian world seemed to stand a stupendous link in the history of man, uniting the two races of men before and after the flood; and it is here indeed that we find ourselves

touching the earliest ages of the world. The dates of some of our most antient cities in Europe appear but of yesterday, compared with the ages which have passed over the mighty ruins that still exist in these primæval countries; for the plains of Ararat and the banks of the Araxes exhibit the remains of cities, of which the origin is beyond all trace. Armenia boasted of many capitals. On this subject, Sir R. P. remarks that, in whatever variety of places the sovereign found it convenient to maintain his state for any time, those cities severally assumed the rank of metropolis; 'and that, in so comparatively a limited extent of territory, there should be found so many of these rival capitals, the extent and grandeur of any one of which might well claim the exclusive distinction to which they all pretend, cannot but be an object of admiration to the traveller of our times, who generally sees the one great capital of a modern kingdom sufficiently demonstrating its claims to honour, by its superiority, in every respect, over all the other cities of the land.'

Ardashir was one of these cities; and the traveller indulges the melancholy which it inspires in the following pathetic reflections:

'It is not in language to describe the effect on the mind, in visiting one of these places. The space, over which the eye wanders, all marked with memorials of the past; but where no pillar, nor dome, nor household wall of any kind, however fallen, yet remain to give a feeling of some present existence of the place, even by a progress in decay; all, here, is finished; buried under heaps of earth; the graves, not of the people alone, but of their houses, temples, palaces; all lying in death-like entombment. At Anni, I found myself surrounded by a superb monument of Armenian greatness; at Ardashir, I stood over its grave. Go where one will, for lessons of time's revolutions, the brevity of human life, the nothingness of man's ambition; they no where can strike upon the heart like a single glance cast on one of these motionless, life-deserted "cities of the silent."—

'Comparing the tenantless vestiges every where scattered over the country of a former numerous people, with the present utter solitariness of every place, I could not but feel it the most dreary way I had ever passed over. The wildest Steppes of Russia were nothing to its desolation. Those deserts are yet to be taken into the use of man; but these have been rifled from him, and from populous countries have become deserts.'

We will now transfer our attention from Armenia and its patriarchal recollections to the city of Tabreez, the capital of the Persian province of Azerbijan, and the seat of its Governor Abbas Mirza, heir-apparent to the Persian crown. To give us an idea of its antient magnificence, we are told that it once rivalled Ecbatana, and that Sir William Jones

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has even confounded them together : but Tabreez has shared the fate common to so many oriental cities : it has been devastated equally by invaders and by earthquakes. — Yet, notwithstanding these calamities, a new city has arisen on the ruins of the old, which bids fair to become an example of vital prosperity beyond any thing yet existing in the kingdom. The winter is here very severe. The gates of all towns and cities of Persia are shut soon after sunset, and reopened at sunrise ; and, during the inclement season, on the opening of the gates, a terrible scene of death often unfolds itself close to the threshold : old and young, children and quadrupeds, lying in one lifeless heap.

‘ But the particular instance I would now recount relates to a solitary traveller, who had performed a long journey on his own horse ; a member of their families, to which these people are eminently attached. When he arrived at Tabreez, the ingress was already barred. The night was one of the severest which had been known ; and the poor man, to save himself from the fatal effects he too surely anticipated, pierced his faithful horse with his dagger, and ripping up its body, thrust himself into it ; in the vain hope of the warmth, which might remain, preserving his own vital heat till the morning. But in the morning, when the gates were opened, he was found frozen to death in this horrible shroud.’

The palace of Abbaz Mirza, the Anderoon or royal female apartments, and the process of the bath, (that grand business of oriental life,) supply agreeable subjects for the pen of the author. It seems that the ladies stand in no need of our European pity, on the score of imprisonment in their splendid cages, as we may consider their sequestration : for ‘ such is the kindly influence of habit, though many of these women must be full of conscious beauty, and never have heard the voice of admiration but from one man, yet the mere idea of giving them more liberty would fill them with misery. In short, they would regard the freedom of the most delicate woman in Europe as a contempt from their husbands, and an exposure altogether too degrading to be thought on.’

We must pass over the particulars of manners and customs, developed in the course of a ceremonious introduction to the Prince, and set the cavalcade in motion, with all the pomp and circumstance of oriental state, on the road to Teheran, the capital of Persia ; whither the Prince-Royal was engaged to assist at the celebration of the feast of the Nowroose, or new-year. The details of this journey are somewhat tedious : but we must except the murder of Mr. Browne, which took place five or six years previously to this account, the reflections on Persian politeness, and the wonders of Persian horsemanship.

manship. At Teheran, we must notice the narrowness of the streets, as a peculiarity common to all cities of the East; and the natives say that, were they otherwise, it would be impossible to pass along them under the unshaded fire of the summer's sun.

Where any place does present a little more room than ordinary, or under the covered ways attached to the shops, we generally find one of the national story-tellers, surrounded by groups of people; some well clad, others in rags, and not a few nearly naked, attending with the most lively interest to tales they must have heard a thousand times before. He recounts them with a change of gesticulation, and a varied tone of voice, according to his subject; whether it be the loves of Khosroo and Shireene, the exploits of Rostum their favourite hero, or any number of historic couplets from Ferdoussi, the Homer of their land. From the humblest peasant to the head that wears the diadem, all have the same passion for this kind of entertainment. His present Majesty, and also the several Prince-governors, have each a court story-teller; in listening to whose powers of memory, or of eloquence, the royal personage frequently passes the leisure of the day; and when on a long journey, this necessary officer is always within call, to beguile the tedium of the way.

The festival of the Nowroose forms a distinguished feature in the work; and it presents a scene of bustle, splendor, and variety, of which we should in vain attempt to give our readers an adequate impression by the scanty extracts which we might find room to insert. The court, the banquet, the nobility, the royal family, and, above all, the person of the great King, form a concentration of human magnificence, the most gorgeous that can regale the imagination either in history or fiction. — Horse-racing is numbered among the entertainments of the Nowroose: but swiftness is not the object of a Persian race, and Sir R. P. was disappointed by the performance. The royal gardens and baths savour more of fairy tales than of realities.

It is, perhaps, prudent to hasten from the contemplation of luxury so seductive; and, journeying from Teheran, we pass ruined cities, caravansaries, and deserts. Of ruins we "have supped full," in our progress through this work: — caravansaries have been too often described to need any detail of their plan and purposes in our pages; — and deserts, perhaps, we may omit for the same reason: but we must advert to a pathetic and eloquent contrast between Ispahan in its former prosperity, under the renowned Shah Abbas, when it was the great emporium of the Asiatic world, and Ispahan as the present traveller found it, silent, abandoned, and falling to decay. Its palace and gardens again reminded us of those descriptions

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in romance which might be ascribed merely to the power of imagination, if they were not verified by these charming realities : but the enchantment is soon dispelled by the aspect of dilapidation, beggary, and famine, which harrows up the soul of the traveller on his egress from the lorn and desolate city. The causes of so much abounding ruin throughout the empire are epitomized by the author in a few words : ' Foreign invasion, civil discord, and the oppression of arbitrary delegated governors : ' — to which we will add a summary of Persian travelling. ' Taking travelling on the whole in Persia, after leaving the immediate surveillance of the Shah or the Prince-Royal, it is nearly as full of danger from thieves and robbers as any part of the Caucasus. We are obliged to keep strict guard, both day and night, from purloiners, if we are in quarters ; from ambushed plunderers, if in open day ; and, with the additional incumbrance of a hot sun, while armed like Robinson Crusoe.'

We should notice an impediment which on one occasion obstructed the march, as it relates to a remarkable feature in oriental character. At the moment of starting, to perform rather a dangerous part of the journey, one of the numerous party, which had united for common protection, happened to sneeze ; which, being considered as foreboding evil, put a stop to the movements of the whole cavalcade, and no arguments could prevail on them to stir during that day.

' The remnants of these old superstitions are not confined to the vulgar in Persia, as they may be with us ; even the present Majesty of this great empire will not leave his capital, undertake an expedition, nor receive an ambassador, till he has had intimation from his astrologer of the fortunate hour for the act. Before all minor transactions, the people in general take what they call a *fall* ; namely, (in the old fashion of dipping in Virgil,) opening the Koran, Hafiz, or any venerated author, and the sense of the passage on which their eyes first *fall* directs their actions accordingly. They put great faith in the virtue of charms, which they buy of the learned in the stars, and bind, not merely about their own persons, but those of their horses ; some are composed of prayers, sewn up in morsels of linen in the shape of lozenges, circles, triangles, &c. The more costly amulets are certain sentences from the Koran, exquisitely engraved on cornelian, and which are usually worn by persons of rank round their neck or arms. The lower orders have talismans, to avert the influence of evil eyes, curses, &c. In short, they neither look, move, nor speak, without attention to some occult fatality or other.'

Sir R. Porter's antiquarian enthusiasm begins to display itself, without reserve, on his arrival at some of the superb ruins

ruins which attracted him to this part of the empire. We doubt not that he will find readers happy to possess themselves of all the information which he has accumulated, in the course of his researches into these relics of ages : — but, such is the obscurity that overshadows every subject of Persian antiquity, that the author must pardon our inaptitude and insensibility, when we declare that we feel ourselves wholly uninfected by his passion for antient stones, inscriptions, and sculptures; and we persuade ourselves that we are secure of the indulgence of our readers, when we refuse to follow him through the labyrinth of description in which he has embodied these beloved objects of his devout veneration. We shall therefore pass over the valley of Mourg-aub or Pasargadae, its temples and tombs, and bas-reliefs of genii and cherubim; the Harem of Jemsheed, the mountain of sepulchres, and their treasures of disfigured sculpture: excepting, however, the fire-temples and altars, which derive a particular interest from their connection with the early religion of the Magi; and on this subject we find much compressed information added to the details of the buildings.

When we come to the plain of Merdasht, it is impossible not to be awed by the majesty of the subject, and the dignified manner in which the writer transfers to the mind of the reader his own impressions of the august and melancholy scene. All the light that history and tradition, and the stories of mythological learning, can supply towards the elucidation of these antiquities, has been collected and concentrated in these pages; and we have not grudgingly bestowed that patience on the perusal, which ought in justice and candour to bear a large proportion to the labour and perseverance of the author. As we cannot attempt to give an abstract of this elaborate portion of our subject, we must refer to the work, for a conception of the marble terraces, stairs, portals, platforms, and colonnades of Persepolis; and of the symbolical images and ornaments that enrich its superb though mutilated remains. The reader will be gratified and instructed by that learned disquisition, in which the origin, signification, and uses of the Bull in oriental architecture, and its connection with the religion of Egypt, Syria, and India, are briefly and intelligibly deduced. The remarks, however, concerning the Lotos, are too generally interesting to be omitted.

Almost every one in the procession holds in his hand a figure like the lotos. This flower was full of meaning to the ancients, and occurs all over the East. Egypt, Palestine, Persia, and India, present it everywhere over their architecture, in the hands and on the heads of their sculptured figures, whether in statue or in bas-relief.

relief. We also find it in the sacred vestments and architecture of the tabernacle, and temple of the Israelites; and see it mentioned by our Saviour, as an image of peculiar beauty and glory, when comparing the works of nature with the decorations of art. It is also represented in all pictures of the salutation of Gabriel to the Virgin Mary; and, in fact, has been held in mysterious veneration by people of all nations and times. The old heraldic work of "The Theatre of Honour," published in France about two hundred years ago, gives this curious account of the lotos or lily:—"It is the symbol of divinity, of purity, and abundance, and of a love most complete in perfection, charity, and benediction; as in Holy Scripture that mirror of chastity, Susanna, is defined Susa, which signifieth the lily flower; the chief city of the Persians bearing that name for excellency. Hence the lily's three leaves in the arms of France meaneth Piety, Justice, and Charity." So far the general impression of a peculiar regard to this beautiful and fragrant flower; but the early Persians attached a particular sanctity to it.

Water, according to their belief, was held in the next degree of reverence to fire; and the white flower, which sprung from the bosom of the colder element, was considered an emblem of its purity, submissiveness, and, above all, of its fecundity, when meeting the rays of the great solar flame. These symbols, united in the lily their joint properties had produced, represented to the poetical conceptions of the East, first, the creative and regenerating attributes of the Supreme Being himself; and, secondly, the imparted powers of the great elements of earth, air, water, and fire, to act mutually on each other, so that, at the return of certain seasons, moisture should spread over the land, from the clouds or the rivers, the air should dry the ground, the sun's beams fructify it, and the grateful earth, at the call of all united in the genial breath of spring, put forth her increase. Hence, as the sovereigns of the East have always been revered, according to a tradition of their being the express vicegerents of the Deity, it is not surprising to see the same emblematic flower carried in a procession to their honour, which would be found "breathing sweet incense" amongst the symbols of an entirely religious festival.

The observations on the symbolical figures of the relieves display some acute and powerful criticism: but we must proceed to the following passage, from which it appears that our homage is due to these memorials of ages on other grounds even than those of their beauty, magnificence, or antiquity, we mean their utility:

Well might the ancients denominate sculpture an immortal art; for we find its monuments in Egypt, in Greece, in Rome, in Persia, bringing forth works to which hardly a date can be assigned; so deeply does their beginning lie in the obscurity of antiquity; while others present a clear commentary on the writings of the ancients, explaining some passages, connecting others, and often

often proving the doubted truth of certain recorded facts, by a happy discovery of some of these marble apparitions remaining stationary on the very spot, where the substance and the action, of which they are the copy, once had a purpose and abiding-place.

In an examination of the ruins of Persepolis, it may be supposed that some pains would be taken to ascertain the spot of the memorable conflagration of Alexander the Great; and the traveller persuades himself that the result of his investigation amounts to something more than well-founded conjecture, concerning the identical site of the fatal hall of banquet. He is, indeed, much in earnest; and his eloquence is so persuasive, that we feel inclined to rely on the faith of his report concerning this great antiquarian problem: while his exposition of the allegorical sculptures on the portals of the palace involves particulars of the antient Persian faith, and superstitions, that may serve as an introduction to this department of oriental learning. We lament to state that the unremitting labour of those inquiries, by which the public have gained so much information, proved destructive to the health of the traveller, and obliged him to retire to Shiraz for medical assistance, and the comforts necessary to a state of sickness:—but not till he had drawn the chief bas-reliefs, and taken a plan of the spot, with copies of several of the inscriptions, all of which appear in their appropriate places in the course of the work.

Sir Robert's summary of the history of Shiraz is comparatively unimportant and uninteresting. The city is stated to have usurped the station of Persepolis as the capital of this part of the country, and to have a pleasant rather than a grand appearance. It is consecrated by the tombs of Hafiz, the Anacreon of Persia, and of Sadi, its great philosophical poet: but they are held in no extraordinary reverence by a squalid and miserable population. The government is weak and effeminate, and the town is so neglected as to be falling to decay. Nature, however, has done her part: the climate is moderate and serene; and the beautiful valley of Shiraz is exceeded in fertility by none in the empire. It boasts also of giving birth to the most beautiful women in Persia, and is equally renowned for its flowers and its extracted perfumes.

We must now take our leave of this intelligent and agreeable writer; promising ourselves much instruction and amusement from his intended continuation of the narrative, and strongly recommending him to those of our readers whose curiosity and perseverance would carry them beyond the narrow bounds of our article. We do not, however, on the present occasion, feel

feel ourselves justified in extending those boundaries, for Persia is by no means untrodden ground. Mr. Morier's volumes have been noticed in our pages at considerable length:—Mr. Kinneir's geographical memoir of the Persian empire comprehends also a considerable portion of the subjects which occupied Sir Robert Porter's researches in Persia Proper;—and the second volume of Sir John Malcolm's history was dedicated to a description of the customs, religion, and character of its inhabitants. We have, therefore, rigidly confined ourselves, in our selections from the present traveller, to topics on which he does not seem to have been anticipated by the able writers to whom we have already adverted.

Were we inclined to season our commendation with any rebuke, we should condemn the inflated style of Sir Robert Porter; a fault which was strikingly conspicuous in his former travels through Russia and Sweden. We feel, however, more than usually disposed to be charitable towards ornamental and turgid diction, in a traveller whose route lay through the native country of oriental hyperbole and exaggeration, and whom we therefore pardon for being somewhat Asiatic in his descriptions. — The volume is decorated with fifty plates, of various subjects.

ART. II. *The Happiness of States; or, an Inquiry concerning Population, the Modes of subsisting and employing it, and the Effects of all on Human Happiness: in which is developed the new or productive System of Statistics.* By S. Gray, Esq. Republished, with an additional Book and a copious Index. 4to. Hatchard and Son.

ART. III. *Fair Prices for Ever! Live and let Live; or, We are all Friends.* Extracted from *The Happiness of States*, for the Use and Benefit of the Working Classes, both Masters, Journeymen, and 'Prentices, throughout Great Britain and Ireland, particularly in the Manufacturing Districts. By James Brodie, Foreman to Mr. Oswald, the Cabinet-maker. 12mo. pp. 51. 6d. Hatchard and Son.

WE were, we believe, the first in the rank of public writers to call the attention of the community to the doctrines of Mr. Gray; and to discover, under an obscure and uninviting form, a series of truths, valuable at all times to the statistical inquirer, and particularly important in a national sense in this season of embarrassment. Those of our friends who recollect our Number for February, 1817, will easily recall the mixed praise and censure bestowed by us on Mr. G.'s first publication; while the readers of our more recent Numbers

bers (July and September, 1819,) will remember a longer report, and a more decided approbation, of the doctrines of Mr. G. when recast and given to the world in a less diffuse form by Dr. Purves. We now sit down to a third notice of the Productive System, in the form definitively given to it by Mr. G., under a consciousness apparently of the deficient arrangement of his early work, and an anxiety to bring the results of his reasoning within the comprehension of every class.

"The Happiness of States," as mentioned in our Review for February, 1817, is a quarto volume, divided into eight parts or books, which treat respectively of subsistence, population, money, and the errors of Mr. Malthus with regard to population and those of Dr. Smith on unproductive labour. Passing over all that has been already noticed, we are at present to advert to the newly published parts, viz. a letter to Sir John Sinclair, an addition of nearly 100 pages; and a small but closely printed pamphlet, adapted to the perusal of the lower orders. The letter to Sir J. Sinclair contains a sketch of the leading doctrines of the productive system, with observations on the intricate subjects of currency and exchange. These are followed by the addition to the "Happiness of States," which, under the name of Part or Book IX., treats largely of the effects of increasing population; and the whole is concluded by an index to the work, affording, to those who shrink from the task of perusing a formidable volume, the means of acquiring a summary view of its contents. The pamphlet intitled 'Fair Prices' discusses in regular succession (with a brief space allotted to each) a number of the topics, such as wages, machinery, and poor-rate, that are most likely to interest the lower orders. — We shall exhibit a summary of Mr. G.'s doctrines; beginning with a brief exposition of his system; analyzing, in the next place, several of his leading principles; and concluding with inquiring how far they are applicable to the present state of our commerce and finances.

The Productive System. — No question has excited more difference of opinion among political economists than the distinction between productive and unproductive labour. M. Quesnay, the well-known founder of the sect of the French economists, referred the origin of all wealth to agriculture, and deemed no labour productive unless connected with the cultivation of the soil. Dr. Smith, though disposed like his predecessor to attribute a productive power *par excellence* to the labours of agriculture, was aware that the definition was too confined; and, after much reasoning, indicative of doubt and embarrassment in his own mind, he bestowed the epithet of

productive of all employment directed to a material object, and exhibiting a result in a solid and transferable form. Manufacturers were thus raised to a level with agriculturists: but the character of productive was denied to some of the most important classes of society; viz. to the physician who prolongs our days, to the magistrate who watches over our property, and to the soldier who guards us from invasion. This definition, though received by the public at large from deference to Dr. Smith, was considered as imperfect by those who had gone more deeply into the science; and M. Say, in the first edition of his well-known work, published nearly twenty years ago, extended the epithet productive to *all labour that is useful*, whether exertion of the mind or body, whether terminating in a visible or an invisible result. This explanation, by much the most comprehensive and satisfactory that had till then been given, was admitted not by readers merely but by scholars; until Mr. Gray, in the farther process of inquiry, discovered that the public paid incomes to many persons who could not, according to M. Say's definition, be brought under the denomination of productive, though of acknowledged ingenuity and activity in their respective callings; such as our comedians, our musicians, the *arbitri elegantiarum* of our assembly-rooms, our *professeurs des beaux arts*, and the more fortunate among our poets and novelists. Money expended by these ingenious persons tended, he said, as directly to the encouragement of industry, and to the increase of the wealth of others, as the expenditure of the classes avowedly productive; viz. the farmer, the manufacturer, and the merchant; and this consideration led Mr. G. to the important and comprehensive inference that every thing which admits of a price being charged for it, whether permanent or transient, whether the effect of bodily or intellectual exertion, is intitled to the character of productive. This doctrine was founded on a more extended view of the objects of desire in a civilized community than any which had before been taken by political economists: by them the attainment of wealth is regarded as the ultimate object of our wishes, the sole means of estimating productive labour; but Mr. G. maintains that happiness and enjoyment are the only terms sufficiently comprehensive to characterize the general object of a refined society. The possession of wealth is, doubtless, a very efficient means of commanding enjoyment; but no person who has carried his views beyond the range of the mercantile world, or who has marked the variety of gratifications among ourselves or our continental neighbours which are unconnected with the possession of prop-

perty, will long refuse to allow that profit, or a mere addition to wealth, forms too narrow a basis for the standard of value. On Mr. G.'s principles, all persons are intitled to the name of productive, since all either labour, or expend their income in behalf of those who labour, for the support or amusement of society.

Mr. Gray's leading Principles. — In the art of making his principles intelligible to the reader, Mr. G. has improved, if not rapidly, at least perceptibly, in each successive publication. His language is at present less diffuse, his arrangement is less obscure, and his arguments are less difficult of comprehension than in his original work. Still we mark a want of closeness in his reasoning: a disposition to turn aside sometimes into invective, and more frequently into loose disquisition; forgetting that, in matters of such intricacy, nothing can convey precise views or convincing results but arguments expressed in the shortest and clearest terms; such as he has given the reader in the form of question and answer in his Letter to Sir J. Sinclair, p. 37., and in the Appendix, p. 666. To his smaller work, intitled "Fair Prices," the charge of obscurity is not indeed applicable, several points in it being not only intelligible but palpable to human capacities: but, as it could not, from its plan, be made the vehicle of much serious reasoning, the productive system still stands in need of a concise and easy manual. As a specimen of that which we should recommend, we subjoin a familiar exposition of a few of Mr. G.'s leading principles of circulation, or the causes which operate in the production of employment, income, and wealth: thus:

I. *Whatever is Income to one Person will prove, in the next Stage of its Distribution, the Source of Employment and Income to others.* — Take as an example the class of painters, of musicians, of players, or any profession the least necessary to society, and apparently the least intitled to the name of productive. The exertions of these persons are, it will be allowed, suitable to an age of refinement, and attended with income to the individuals and with gratification to those who employ them. In proportion as a community emerges from poverty, and becomes relieved from the struggle for mere subsistence which is characteristic of the earlier periods of society, in that proportion is room made for the cultivation of the agreeable and elegant arts. Time for relaxation, and for the gratification of taste, is afforded even to the laborious; and with the higher class, we mean those of independent fortune, elegant and amusing pursuits form almost the business of life. Such has been, more particularly during the last two centuries,

ries, the state of society in the improved part of Europe; that is, in Holland, England, and France; — a state in which the dispensers of amusement, and the teachers of fashionable accomplishments, have been as little at a loss for income as the agriculturist, the navigator, or the manufacturer. It may be asked, however, in what manner do such persons contribute to the increase of the productive powers of the community? By the expenditure of their income; the effect of which is to call into action the members avowedly productive, the agriculturist, the manufacturer, and the merchant. If we proceed to try one of the apparently superfluous classes, — for example, the musical, — by various tests, and ask whether it tends to draw away income from other classes, whether it is not more numerous than it is required to be, or whether its members might not be otherwise employed with greater benefit to themselves, the answer to every question will be in the negative; proving in fact that these classes are, in a politico-economical sense, subject to the same rules with the classes who rank avowedly at the head of the productive. What, then, ought to be the inference in the mind of an impartial reasoner? That the received theories as to unproductive labour are erroneous; that we have not yet acquired the power of discriminating between the relative productiveness of different classes; that there ought to be no interference from authority with the exercise of professions or occupations; and that it is the policy as well as the duty of governments to leave each to their free course; satisfied that every man who can realize an income, without acting immorally or illegally, will be found a *bonâ fide* contributor to the public wealth.

II. *In what Manner is the Production of Wealth conducted in Society? Answer — by the Process of Charging and Counter-charging.* — The illustration of this principle will require a reference to certain rules and usages of no difficult comprehension. It is well known that the plan in business is to fix the price of an article by a reference to its cost in all the different stages of its preparation, whether raising, transporting, or manufacturing. In like manner, professional men are in the habit of adapting their fees to the expence incurred in their education; while persons in the public service receive salaries proportioned to the expence attendant on their mode of life. In the language of business, they charge the community for the duty which they perform or the articles which they furnish, and become in their turn the object of counter-charge for the services which they require, or the articles which they purchase. This routine, this successive revolution of wheels within wheels, is too obvious to need much illustration,

illustration, but a continued attention to it is necessary in forming a just idea of the mode of acquiring and distributing income. It is requisite also for a different purpose,—to shew that we possess no other means of estimating the productive nature of an employment than the price charged for it, and paid by the community.

Economists, like reasoners of a humbler character, seem still to have a notion that wealth must necessarily exist in some solid form, such as money, merchandise, or houses; that its amount is defined and limited; and that, while such classes as the agriculturist and the manufacturer make regular additions to the mass, those whom they term the unproductive members of society live at the expence of the others, and by means of deductions from the common stock. This notion, sufficiently plausible in appearance, is of very old standing: it may be traced in the *dictum* of Judge Hale that “the more populous we are, the poorer we are;” and a similar feeling, as far at least as subsistence is concerned, appears to have prompted the population-theory of Mr. Malthus. Yet nothing can be more illusory: wealth has no necessary limitation except that which arises from the numbers of mankind, and their progress in social advancement. There is intellectual as well as material treasure: the production of wealth may and does take place by the exercise of the mind, or by the communication of instruction, as well as by manual labour or the use of machinery; and the inquirer will search long ere he will find any other test of its existence, or measure of its extension, than the charge which the different classes in society make for income, and the counter-charge of which they are the object in their expenditure. I admit, says Mr. Gray, that the degree of production is very different in different individuals: but almost all are, in some form, conducive to circulation, and consequently to increase of wealth.

III. *The more the Classes in a Society are multiplied and varied, the larger is their Portion of Comfort and Wealth.* This highly interesting truth will be best understood by a reference to different stages of society;—by comparing the aspect of society, two or three centuries ago, with that which it bears at present; or by contrasting the condition of a remote and thinly peopled province with that of a capital. In either case, we shall find that not only our collective but our individual wealth has increased with our numbers; and the chief reasons of the augmentation are that, as a community becomes more numerous, employments are more subdivided, and the same labour enables a person to furnish a commodity both greater in quantity and better in quality. A farther reason, and one which

which is very strikingly exemplified in the present age, is that the progress of society is perpetually giving rise to new discoveries and inventions; the effect of which, when in any degree deserving the name of improvement, is to render the commodities affected by them both cheaper and better. Hence the greater comfort of the inhabitants of towns than of those of villages: hence also the greater ease with which a society in an advanced stage increases its numbers, except in very particular cases; we mean when subjected to unusual disadvantages, such as we have lately seen in England in the transition from war to peace, or such as arise permanently in Holland from the charge of defending the country from the sea. In the natural course of things, the increase of numbers will be found to lessen the difficulty of rearing a family: but, as the farther discussion of this topic is connected with Mr. G.'s doctrines on population, we reserve it till we treat of that branch of the subject.

Speculation in Trade and Manufactures.—On this subject we find it incumbent on us to express some dissent from, or at least some qualification of, the doctrines of Mr. Gray: who, ardent for an increase of employment, from whatever source, treats speculation not only with indulgence but with favour. 'Out of five speculators,' says Mr. G., ("Fair Prices," pp. 35, 36.) 'one probably fails; but three, perhaps four, are successful.' This is an allegation which, as far as our observation has gone, we should be inclined to reverse; computing that, in general, only one in five of these adventurous gentlemen succeed in carrying off a prize, while three or rather four of his brethren entail embarrassment on themselves and their creditors. We grant that they add to the activity and for a time to the income of their countrymen: but the question is whether a smaller share of activity, directed on safer grounds, would not be equally profitable. Still we are far from demanding any legislative interference, or recommending any measure which might lead to the opposite extreme: we have visited the Continent, and have had ample occasion to see that nothing can be more contrary to the speculative spirit of our countrymen and the Americans, than the cautious course of our European neighbours. The French, active as they are in the field, and sprightly in social intercourse, have in trade and manufactures comparatively little enterprise: the same branch of business is generally handed down from father to son; the same shop or warehouse is occupied; the same capital is invested; and, in all probability, the same extent of business is transacted. The consequence is an exemption from many of those failures which are perpetually occurring

in this country and in the United States, but it is an exemption purchased by no slight degree of torpor in mercantile transactions. In mercantile speculation, therefore, as in other things, let our rule be to give a free course to circumstances, and to interfere no farther than to effect the removal of obstacles; such, for example, as the restriction on the interest of money, which operates directly or indirectly to cramp trade to a degree greatly beyond the estimate of any of the supporters, either in or out of parliament, of Serjeant Onslow's bill for the repeal of the limitation.

Poor-Rate, and the Effect of Machinery on Wages.—With regard to poor-rate, Mr. Gray, differing in some points from Mr. Scarlett, declares himself adverse to any abrupt change; unless it be a modification of the law of settlement, and the reduction of the allowance to the labouring class, as far as it is made an expedient for keeping down the rate of wages. The fair price of labour ought to be paid directly to him who performs it, without distinguishing whether he be married or single, or whether his children are more or less numerous. In this as in other points, interference from authority, though arising from humane motives, is productive of bad consequences: but Saving-banks and Friendly Societies Mr. G. deems of the greatest importance to the lower orders.

Machinery is considered by the working classes as an invasion of their province, — a potent engine in the reduction of wages: it was of importance, therefore, in a publication intended to tranquillize them, to combat this illusion; and to shew them that a blank, caused in their employment by the introduction of machinery is, in general, soon filled up. This takes place in various ways; partly by the new employment necessary for making the machinery, partly by the augmented export consequent on the reduced price of an article, but, above all, by the greater consumption of the article among ourselves. It has happened in a number of our manufacturing districts, that the eventual demand for hands has increased in proportion as machinery is more largely employed; and those persons who dread an ultimate over-supply — an excess arising from the use of machinery — will do well to bear in mind that the supply of articles from this source is as completely under the regulating power of demand, as the supply from manual labour.

Mr. Gray's Censures of the Theory of Dr. Smith. — After having thus expressed an opinion in general favourable to Mr. G.'s doctrines, we cannot forbear to animadvert on the expressions which occasionally escape him, (Letter to Sir J. Sinclair, p. 28.) when treating of Dr. Smith's theory of

unproductive labour. Admitting that Dr. S. gave a scientific shape to some erroneous notions, and that those notions would perhaps never have obtained general currency without his sanction; — admitting also that he was totally mistaken in his idea that labour, in order to be productive, must necessarily fix itself on objects vendible in a solid form, (excluding thus from his estimate of productive the labours of the mind,) — we see in such misconceptions nothing deserving of censure, nothing in short but the natural result of the imperfect state of the science at the time. In those days, statistical *data* were comparatively rare: had the case been otherwise, Dr. S. would doubtless have fixed political economy on a basis of additional solidity, and have given to the world a system founded on facts and documents. The ground of surprize is not that he should in some cases have promulgated an erroneous system, but that, accustomed as he was to the society of professors and academicians, and comparatively little acquainted with men of business, he should have steered so clear of closet-theories, and have in so many instances detected their fallacy. How, then, can Mr. G. expect his reader to concur with him in terming the system of Dr. S. ‘visionary or malignant?’ In many points, such as in recommending perfect freedom in the exercise of trade and professions, and a freedom equally complete with regard to national intercourse, the two systems are agreed. They coincide also in exposing the fallacy of the popular notion that the acquisitions of one nation are made at the expense of another; and that there exists, in this or any other country, a permanent excess of export over import. They agree, in short, in combating many of those plausible but anti-social theories, which (Letter to Sir J. Sinclair, p. 38.) are now happily succeeded in the cabinets of Europe by very different doctrines, — by a disposition to cultivate peace, and to seek national aggrandizement more from improvements at home than from aggressions on neighbouring states. If the productive system, as explained by Mr. G., be in correspondence with these liberal views, and if it have a claim to the higher praise of according with the spirit of Christianity, — giving an interest and a consistency to the whole plan of nature, and rendering the science of statistics simple and easy, — why should a portion of such praise be refused to the principles of Dr. S., when we consider their approximation to the creed of generosity and humanity, and when we contrast them with the mercantile system, or the generally crude and selfish theories that preceded them?

Application of Mr. Gray's Principles to our Financial Situation. — The years that have elapsed since the Peace have been more than usually fruitful in statistical information; and Mr. G. may appeal with confidence to the evidence which they afford in support of his principles, and in contradiction to Dr. Smith's doctrine of unproductive labour. The restoration of Europe to a state of general tranquillity, in 1815, implied a great and general change; particularly a reduction of government-demands, whether loans or taxes. On the Continent, that reduction was considerable, but in this country it amounted to not less than 50,000,000*l.* sterling, or nearly a fifth of the national income; — a change unexampled in its magnitude at any previous period of our history. What, on the unproductive system of Dr. Smith, ought to have been the result of this great reduction? The services rendered for the payment of these 50,000,000*l.* being, according to that theory, merely of a transfer-kind, the productive classes ought forthwith to have gained all that the unproductive had lost. The latter, it is admitted, would for a time be distressed: but the former ought soon to have been enabled by their gains, and by the fall of prices, to supply in another form the amount of employment which had been withdrawn. Not so, however, according to Mr. Gray. In his opinion, a reduction of expenditure on the part of government forms a suspension of productive employment, as complete as if a similar reduction had taken place in the income of the agriculturist or the manufacturer. The persons curtailed of their income are deprived proportionally of the means of employing others: if they remain among us, the community loses in part its power of counter-charging; and, if they emigrate, it loses that power altogether.

That such reduction is productive of great distress we readily admit, particularly after the experience of the last seven years: but, when Mr. G. goes farther, and insists that any reduction in the price of commodities, as expressed in money, constitutes so much loss to the public, we can agree with him no longer. In this as in other parts of his work, he seems to make no allowance for the general rise in the value of money since the Peace, for its power of going farther in purchases, and for its consequently rendering nominal a very considerable part of the fall in price that attends the cessation of government-orders. — In the same spirit of favour to high prices, Mr. G. discovers with regard to taxes an extent of indulgence which might satisfy the boldest calculator, and might suit the financial system of M. de Calonne in France, or the Marquis Wellesley in India. For what, he asks,

asks, are taxes imposed? To pay employment; and in what manner, he continues, can they be injurious to the persons subjected to them, as long as they are able to indemnify themselves by a corresponding counter-charge? It is to the increase of taxes that Mr. G. attributes (Letter to Sir J. Sinclair, p. 8.) a great part of our prosperity during the war; while the reduction of them since the Peace, followed as it has been by a corresponding decrease of employment, is, in his opinion, the great cause of our present embarrassments. To this subject we have lately given particular attention; and, while we admit that there is more justice in Mr. Gray's remarks than they are allowed by political economists, we must add that he dwells too exclusively on a single view of the question, and overlooks other causes of distress, such as those which are more properly evils of transition than evils of reduction.

Another and more intelligible objection to high taxes, and the continuance of war-expenditure, is the disadvantage in which they place us relatively to other countries. A comparison of our resources and our burdens with those of France will lead to a conclusion very different from that of the Agricultural Report; in which (p. 22.) we find it advanced "that the proportion of taxes to the income or capital of each individual is probably not greater in England than in several states of the Continent." France is at least equal to this country in fertility of soil, while in population she greatly surpasses us, even after our rapid increase in the present age: but, in a comparison of public burdens, she bears a proportion of only two to three; so that, whatever may be our relative situation in the next generation, and whatever we may in that time gain on our neighbours, it is evidently too much to assert that, at present, their burdens are, in proportion to their means, as heavy as ours. Mr. G. has travelled on the Continent, though his work unfortunately contains no direct comparison of England with France, and few allusions to the relative situation of the two countries. In his journey, which took place in 1816, he was struck (see his letter to M. Say in our Number for September, 1819, p. 30.) with the appearance of stagnation and the general backwardness of productive industry in France: but, had he considered how easily our artisans and our capital may be transported to the Continent, he could not fail to have been awakened to a sense of our heavier burdens, and to an apprehension that, if continued, they might have necessitated emigration to a ruinous extent. In that case, he would scarcely have regretted a fall in the price of our corn, (we mean a partial and moderate fall, such as to 60s. or 62s. for a quarter of wheat,)

wheat,) calculated as it is to bring the subsistence of our labourer more nearly on a level with its cost in the countries most likely to rival us in foreign markets.

We now suspend our observations on Mr. G., with the intention of resuming them in our next Number: when we shall treat, first, of the application of his doctrines to the intricate subject of our money and exchange; next, of the more intelligible topic of increasing population; and, lastly, of the qualifications, not few or inconsiderable, with which the reception of these interesting and important doctrines ought, in our opinion, to be accompanied.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IV. *The Life of Wesley; and the Rise and Progress of Methodism.* By Robert Southey, Esq. Poet-Laureate, &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Southey seems of late to be very wilfully incurring the danger of being called a book-maker, and though the life of John Wesley is no new topic, it was to be expected that the extraordinary character of the subject, and the celebrity of the biographer, would secure a favourable reception for these volumes. They certainly form, on the whole, a very judicious compilation; and they include, in addition to the Wesleyan details, a complete account of the life of Whitefield, with sketches sufficiently extensive of the characters and exertions of the principal Methodist leaders, as well Calvinistic as Wesleyan, who have since appeared. Excepting that Mr. Southey seems to have a bias in favour of his hero's family, that he gives Mr. Wesley's mother more credit for sound judgment than her conduct can justify, that he attributes to Wesley himself more consistency and sincerity of heart than we can discover to have belonged to him habitually, and that he has perhaps even too mean an opinion of Whitefield's sense, the work before us strikes us as being remarkably impartial.

We have on former occasions* adverted to the principal facts of Mr. Wesley's birth and life, and particularly to the circumstances of the early development of his extraordinary character, during his residence both at Oxford and in America. Soon after his arrival there, he gave the strongest indications of a perverse and intolerant spirit. He despised

* See our review of Hampson's *Memoirs of Wesley*, *New Series*, vol. vi. p. 389. Life by Dr. Coke and Mr. Moore, xv. p. 28. By Dr. Whitehead, xv. p. 159., and xxiii. p. 127.

human learning too much to study any new languages, though with his English he could be of no service to the Choctaws : — he would baptize no children without immersion : — he would not admit persons as sponsors who had not communicated ; — and he would neither receive Dissenters at the communion without their being re-baptized, nor read the burial-service over them under any circumstances. As soon as he was in a theatre where he could act without restraint from a superior, he displayed in their native ugliness that love of power, and that spiritual pride, which under various disguises were his ruling passions through life. Where, according to the rubrics of the Church of England, though contrary to its practice, or where by a strained interpretation of those rubrics, he could domineer over the consciences of others under the pretext of clerical discipline, this he did ; and, with the spirit of a Becket, he gloried in his own austerities, in bigotry, and in persecution. In the midst of his intolerance, however, his pride was humbled by a love-adventure, the details of which we do not deem it necessary to recapitulate : but we cannot help observing that the particulars are in the highest degree discreditable to Mr. Wesley's memory as a man of sincerity, or propriety, or humanity.

The review which Mr. Wesley took of the progress of his own religious life, during his voyage home from America, shews that his enthusiasm had been materially tamed, and we observe much sobriety and discretion in the remarks which it contains :

“ For many years,” says he, “ I have been tossed about by various winds of doctrine. I asked long ago, ‘ What must I do to be saved ? ’ The Scripture answered, Keep the commandments, believe, hope, love. — I was early warned against laying, as the Papists do, too much stress on outward works, or on a faith without works, which as it does not include, so it will never lead to true hope or charity. Nor am I sensible that to this hour I have laid too much stress on either. But I fell among some Lutheran and Calvinist authors, who magnified faith to such an amazing size, that it hid all the rest of the commandments. I did not then see that this was the natural effect of their overgrown fear of popery, being so terrified with the cry of merit and good works, that they plunged at once into the other extreme ; in this labyrinth I was utterly lost, not being able to find out what the error was, nor yet to reconcile this uncouth hypothesis either with Scripture or common sense. The English writers, such as Bishop Beveridge, Bishop Taylor, and Mr. Nelson, a little relieved me from these well-meaning wrong-headed Germans. Only when they interpreted Scripture in different ways, I was often much at a loss. And there was one thing much insisted on in Scripture, — the unity of the church, which none of them, I thought, clearly explained.

plained. But it was not long before Providence brought me to those who shewed me a sure rule of interpreting Scripture, *consensus veterum: Quod ab omnibus, quod ubique, quod semper creditum*; at the same time they sufficiently insisted upon a due regard to the one church at all times and in all places. Nor was it long before I bent the bow too far the other way: by making antiquity a co-ordinate rather than sub-ordinate rule with Scripture; by admitting several doubtful writings; by extending antiquity too far; by believing more practices to have been universal in the ancient church than ever were so; by not considering that the decrees of a provincial synod could bind only that province, and the decrees of a general synod only those provinces whose representatives met therein; that most of those decrees were adapted to particular times and occasions, and consequently when those occasions ceased, must cease to bind even those provinces. These considerations insensibly stole upon me as I grew acquainted with the mystic writers, whose noble descriptions of union with God and internal religion made every thing else appear mean, flat, and insipid. But in truth they made good works appear so too: yea, and faith itself, and what not? They gave me an entire new view of religion, nothing like any I had before. But, alas! it was nothing like that religion which Christ and his apostles loved and taught. I had a plenary dispensation from all the commands of God; the form was thus: Love is all; all the commands beside are only means of love: you must chuse those which you feel are means to you, and use them as long as they are so. Thus were all the bands burst at once; and though I could never fully come into this, nor contentedly omit what God enjoined, yet, I know not how, I fluctuated between obedience and disobedience. I had no heart, no vigour, no zeal in obeying, continually doubting whether I was right or wrong, and never out of perplexities and entanglements. Nor can I at this hour give a distinct account, how or when I came a little back toward the right way; only my present sense is this, all the other enemies of Christianity are triflers, the mystics are the most dangerous; they stab it in the vitals, and its most serious professors are most likely to fall by them."

On his return, he seems to have entered on the closest intimacy with the Moravian brethren in London, and his reason appears to have been speedily sunken in the deepest gulfs of mysticism. He wrote a curious letter to William Law, and received from him a judicious and friendly answer: but his delirium did not attain its acme till Wednesday the 24th of May in that year, (1738,) when he went to a society in Aldersgate-Street, where one of the assembly was reading Luther's preface to the Epistle to the Romans.

"Here about a quarter before nine," says Wesley, "while he was describing the change which God works in the heart through faith in Christ, I felt my heart strangely warmed; I felt I did

trust

trust in Christ, Christ alone, for salvation : and an assurance was given me, that He had taken away *my* sins, even *mine*, and saved *me* from the law of sin and death. I began to pray with all my might for those who had in a more especial manner spitefully used me and persecuted me. I then testified openly to all there what I now first felt in my heart. But it was not long before the enemy suggested, This cannot be faith, for where is thy joy ?" —

"I as often lifted up my eyes," he says, "and He sent me help from his holy place. And herein I found the difference between this and my former state chiefly consisted. I was striving, yea fighting with all my might under the law, as well as under grace : but then I was sometimes, if not often conquered ; now I was always conqueror."

This assurance, which Wesley so received, led him to the greatest extravagancies. In the following year, commenced those strange fits, those "wrestlings with God," and "dislodgements of the evil one," which, after the manner of the French prophets, Wesley was able to excite in his congregations. They appear in some cases to have been the result of sensibility highly excited ; in others, a sort of epileptic affection ; in some, an hysterical disorder, highly infectious from sympathy ; and in many cases they were the offspring of hypocrisy, and intended merely to create attention. Some, which were effected afterward by Wesley's followers, bear strong marks of a conspiracy between the preacher and the exhibitors. The injury which must be done to any person's senses by constantly aspiring and gasping for a visitation of grace, which was not to be procured by any good works or rational exertions, but was to be a sudden influx from "the pure love of the babe Jesus," might account for a great portion of these fancies : but a fervid or disordered imagination does not, except at the outset of these vagaries, seem to have had so much agency in producing these effects as a certain craft and subtilty which makes men fond of being parties in wonder-working, and in imposing on the credulity of their neighbours. We omit many instances, but cannot refrain from giving at large an extract from a letter of Mr. Cennick, at that time a very favoured pupil of Mr. Wesley, which contains the theory as well as the praxis of this system. He appears to have been enlarging on the subject of eternal punishment, urged probably with a little vehement "application" (as it is called) to some of his audience ; and the experiment being tried on minds grossly rude and uneducated, and therefore susceptible of the strongest impressions when once roused, seems to have succeeded for the operator to his heart's content. In this case, we see no reason to doubt that the convulsions of the initiates

initiates were quite as natural and genuine as the friendly zeal of the mystagogue who excited them :

“ Far be it from me,” says he, “ to attribute the convictions of sin (the work of the Holy Ghost) to Beelzebub ! No ; neither do I say that those strong wrestlings are of God only. I thought, you had understood my opinion better, touching this matter. I believe, that before a soul is converted to God, the spirit of rebellion is in every one, that is born into the world ; and while Satan armed keepeth his hold, the man enjoys a kind of peace ; mean time, the Holy Ghost is offering a better peace, according to that Scripture, ‘ Behold, I stand at the door, and knock,’ &c. Now, after the word of the Most High has touched the heart, I think the serpent is seeking to root it up, or choke the seed ; but as the Spirit of God has gained entrance, he rageth with all his might ; and as far as he hath power, troubleth the soul with the justice of God, with fear of having passed the day of grace, or having sinned too greatly to be forgiven, in order to make them despair. Hence ariseth a fierce combat in the inward parts, so that the weaker part of man, the body, is overcome, and those cries and convulsions follow.

“ On Monday evening, I was preaching at the school on the forgiveness of sins, when two persons, who, the night before, had laughed at others, cried out with a loud and bitter cry. So did many more, in a little time. Indeed, it seemed that the Devil, and much of the powers of darkness, were come among us. My mouth was stopped, and my ears heard scarce any thing, but such terrifying cries, as would have made any one’s knees tremble ! Only judge. It was pitch dark ; it rained much ; and the wind blew vehemently. Large flashes of lightning, and loud claps of thunder, mixt with the screams of frightened parents and the exclamations of nine distressed souls ! The hurry and confusion caused hereby cannot be expressed. The whole place seemed to me to resemble nothing but the habitation of apostate spirits ; many raving up and down, crying, ‘ The Devil will have me ! I am his servant ; I am damned ! ’ — ‘ My sins can never be pardoned ! I am gone, gone for ever ! ’ A young man (in such horrors, that seven or eight could not hold him) still roared, like a dragon, ‘ Ten thousand devils, millions, millions of devils are about me ! ’ This continued three hours. One cried out, ‘ That fearful thunder is raised by the Devil : in this storm he will bear me to hell ! ’ O what a power reigned amongst us ! Some cried out, with a hollow voice, ‘ Mr. Cennick ! Bring Mr. Cennick ! ’ I came to all that desired me. They then spurned with all their strength, grinding their teeth, and expressing all the fury that heart can conceive. Indeed, their starting eyes, and swelled faces, so amazed others, that they cried out almost as loud as they who were tormented. I have visited several since, who told me, their senses were taken away ; but when I drew near, they said, they felt fresh rage, longing to tear me to pieces ! I never saw the like, nor even the shadow of it,

it, before ! Yet, I can say, I was not in the least afraid, as I knew God was on our side."

Wesley's younger brother, Charles, was not so much the dupe to these strange conflicts between evil and gracious spirits, as John either was or affected to be. He (Charles) left one or two of these demoniacs to recover at leisure, without observing their antics ; and others he ordered to be taken out quietly to the door of the conventicle, where they soon came to the use of their limbs. The great feat, however, about this period, was the conversion of Wesley's mother, and her new birth at the age of seventy years. Wesley rejoiced exceedingly, and, as we cannot compliment his good sense on the occasion, we are bound to impute his extasies to filial devotion. — He soon found that, as long as he acted in concert with the body of Moravians, he had only a single voice against many. Their notions were of a calmer nature than these fits which he had latterly encouraged among his disciples : some of *their* quietism *he* could not understand ; and *they* were equally perplexed with some of *his* conundrums. *They* held that all works before the true spirit came were sinful in their nature ; and *he* also held that "no good works could be done before justification ; none, which have not in them the nature of sin." These two doctrines were understood by themselves to be quite different, though it is hard to conceive in what besides mere words the difference can exist : for both doctrines sound equally mystical, unintelligible, and absurd. Wesley, however, had another speculation, which did not agree with their experience. *He* conceived that, after an assurance, and when the new creature was put on, the old man was annihilated : while *they* thought that, till the hour of death, some little touch of frailty would still remain in human nature. On these pretexts, Wesley separated himself from a community which was already provided with a president and with elders. At first, a truce prevailed between them ; some negotiations were made for coalescing again ; and two grave elders, Boehler and Spangenberg, had a conference with him, and solemnly argued some of the points of difference. One part of the conference is diverting :

" " The moment we are justified," said they, " a new creature is put into us. But, notwithstanding, the old creature, or the old man, remains in us, till the day of our death ; and in this old man there remains an old heart, corrupt and abominable : for inward corruption remains in the soul, as long as the soul remains in the body. But the heart which is in the new man is clean. And the new man is stronger than the old ; so that though corruption continually

tinually strives, yet, while we look to Christ, it cannot prevail."— Wesley asked him if there was an old man in him: "Yes," he replied, "and will be as long as I live."—"Is there then corruption in your heart?" said Wesley. — Spangenberg made answer, "In the heart of my old man there is, but not in the heart of my new man;" and this, he said, was confirmed, not by his own experience only, but by that of all the Moravian church. Some of Wesley's disciples, women as well as men, who were present at this conference, bore their testimony to the possibility of attaining that Christian perfection which was at this time Wesley's favourite tenet, and which was so flattering to the pride of his followers. But Spangenberg answered this with great truth, as well as great emotion, and the old man's hand trembled as he spake: "You all deceive your own souls! There is no higher state than that I have described. You are in a very dangerous error. You know not your own hearts. You fancy your corruptions are taken away, whereas they are only covered. Inward corruption never can be taken away, till our bodies are in the dust." The same opinion was afterwards expressed to Wesley, in familiar conversation, by Boehler, but with characteristic vigour: "Sin will and must always remain in the soul. The old man will remain till death. The old nature is like an old tooth: you may break off one bit, and another, and another; but you can never get it all away. The stump will stay as long as you live, and sometimes will ache too."

The breach, however, was irreparable; and, though Count Zinzendorff himself afterward came over, and conversed with Wesley, he seems only to have made matters worse. It could be of no great service, indeed, to discuss the ostensible grounds of the separation, while the real causes, of a less spiritual nature, remained unchanged. — Disunion now led to controversy, and controversy ended in rancorous and malignant hostility. The vilest personalities and the most scurrilous defamation were used by both parties; and it cannot be denied that, in all the tactics of such warfare, in the management of dark hints, in the adoption of inveterate slanders, and in direct virulent invective, our countryman shewed himself at least a match for his adversaries.

Not long afterward, Wesley had to encounter another and much more serious separation, viz. from his great coadjutor Whitefield, in consequence of the latter taking up the doctrines of election and reprobation with great warmth, while Wesley with equal zeal opposed them. Whitefield was a sincere and genuine bigot: — his soul panted for martyrdom: — he despised all temporizing, and had no notion of policy or any worldly views. On ignorant and uncultivated minds, his constitutional fervor wrought astonishing effects; and the good which he accomplished, in reforming persons of the most savage and abject character, and awakening them from the

the grossest intemperance and sensuality to a sense of the benefits of religion and orderly life, was in proportion to his undaunted courage and his unabating zeal. His sincerity, indeed, gave him that energy of manner, that native and hearty eloquence, which nothing but sincerity can impart. The miners in Kingswood, the salt-workers in Scotland, our colonists in America, and the savage clans in their deserts, listened to his accents as to those of a man inspired by God; they bore witness to the simplicity, the self-denial, and the austerity of a saint; and they seemed to recognize the enthusiasm of a prophet, together with the unwearied perseverance of a primitive apostle. All methods of address and insinuation were foreign to his nature, for he rejected them as unbecoming the character of an ambassador from Heaven. His supplications sounded like the intercession of some kindred and guardian spirit, and his denunciations pealed along like the thunders of an offended and avenging deity. A disposition in a considerable degree morbid, and a spirit which found something congenial to its own mysterious darkness and volcanic impulses in such speculations, combined with early impressions and a particular course of reading into which he fell while he was in America, occasioned him to contemplate with peculiar delight those awful and tremendous attributes with which the Supreme Being is invested as the dispenser of justice. That turn of mind, indeed, which delights in sublime and appalling images, which is always tending to the extravagant, and which sympathizes in the faith of St. Austin when he cried out that its impossibility rendered a matter credible, was a remarkable ingredient in the character of Whitefield; and it cannot be wondered that he seized with avidity, and maintained with pertinacity till his last breath, the monstrous dogmas of Calvinism. Men of a humane nature, if they find themselves embarrassed with the subtleties in which the logomachy about necessity and free will is involved, feel disposed to embrace at the same time, after the example of the benevolent Hartley, the consolatory opinion that all persons will eventually partake of the favour of the Supreme Being; for they cannot at once conceive that man's conduct is inevitable and that God is implacable. Whitefield, however, not only believed the doctrine of reprobation, but considered it as criminal in him to disguise or modify his opinion on so vital and essential a point of Christian faith, either in deference or in accommodation to any living being. He wrote several letters to Wesley on the subject before and during his voyage on his return from America. In some moments, his respect and affection for his correspondent seemed to predominate,

minate: but at others his zeal for what he regarded as God's word was irresistible, and he thought that he could explain to Wesley why God had allowed him to be so long in error on that subject. His letters, however, are not very argumentative; nor, to say the truth, was reasoning at any time his forte. However, before Whitefield's return, Wesley had declared open war with Cennick on this very subject, and cut off all intercourse. He had also published a sermon on the doctrine of universal redemption, on which Barrow had long before exhausted every argument that can be advanced, in four incomparable discourses. Barrow's eloquence is like manna dropped from Heaven, at once exquisite and nutritious; while Wesley's effusions have little of the inspiration of his mighty precursor, and exhibit a melancholy of madness which is entirely his own. They are like the ravings of some Sibyll, jealous of the sorceries and more prevailing spells of a rival prophethood; or the commination of some pontifical hierophant of antiquity against any intruders within his own peculiar circle of demonology. — As this sermon was deemed more than any thing else the cause of the irreparable breach between Wesley and Whitefield, we shall extract a part of it which is given by Mr. Southey, and commended by him, we believe with justice, as the most eloquent and impassioned passage in all Mr. Wesley's works:

“ Call it by whatever name you please, Election, Preterition, Predestination, or Reprobation, it comes to the same thing. The sense is plainly this: by virtue of an eternal, unchangeable, irresistible decree of God, one part of mankind are infallibly saved, and the rest infallibly damned; it being impossible that any of the former should be damned, or that any of the latter should be saved.” He proceeded to show, that it made all preaching vain, as needless to the elect, and useless to the reprobate; and, therefore, that it could not be a doctrine of God, because it makes void his ordinance; that it tended to produce spiritual pride in some, absolute despair in others, and to destroy our zeal for good works; that it made Revelation contradictory and useless; and that it was full of blasphemy, — “ of such blasphemy,” said he, “ as I should dread to mention, but that the honour of our gracious God, and the cause of truth, will not suffer me to be silent. In the cause of God,” he pursues, “ and from a sincere concern for the glory of his great name, I will mention a few of the horrible blasphemies contained in this horrible doctrine. But first I must warn every one of you that hears, as ye will answer it at the great day, not to charge me, as some have done, with blaspheming, because I mention the blasphemy of others. And the more you are grieved with them that do thus blaspheme, see that ye ‘ confirm your love towards them’ the more, and that your heart's desire, and continual

tional prayer to God, be; 'Father, forgive them, for they know not what they do!'

"This premised, let it be observed, that this doctrine represents our blessed Lord, 'Jesus Christ, the righteous, the only-begotten Son of the Father, full of grace and truth,' as an hypocrite, a deceiver of the people, a man void of common sincerity. For it cannot be denied that he every where speaks as if he were willing that all men should be saved; therefore, to say he was not willing that all men should be saved, is to represent him as a mere hypocrite and dissembler. It cannot be denied, that the gracious words which came out of his mouth are full of invitations to all sinners; to say, then, He did not intend to save all sinners, is to represent him as a gross deceiver of the people. You cannot deny that he says, 'Come unto me, all ye that are weary and heavy laden!' If, then, you say He calls those that cannot come, those whom he knows to be unable to come, those whom he can make able to come, but will not, how is it possible to describe greater insincerity? You represent him as mocking his helpless creatures, by offering what he never intends to give. You describe him as saying one thing and meaning another; as pretending the love which he had not. Him, in whose mouth was no guile, you make full of deceit, void of common sincerity: then, especially when drawing nigh the city, he wept over it, and said, 'O Jerusalem, Jerusalem, thou that killest the prophets, and stonest them that are sent unto thee, how often would I have gathered thy children together, and ye would not!' (*ἠθύνον καὶ οὐκ ἠθύνοντο.*) Now, if you say they would, but he would not, you represent him (which who could hear!) as weeping crocodile tears over the prey which he had doomed to destruction!

"Such blasphemy this, as, one would think, might make the ears of a Christian to tingle! But there is yet more behind; for, just as it honours the Son, so doth this doctrine honour the Father. It destroys all his attributes at once: it overturns both his justice, mercy, and truth. Yes, it represents the Most Holy God as worse than the devil; as more false, more cruel, and more unjust. More false, because the devil, liar as he is, hath never said he willeth all mankind to be saved: more unjust, because the devil cannot, if he would, be guilty of such injustice as you ascribe to God, when you say, that God condemned millions of souls to everlasting fire, prepared for the devil and his angels, for continuing in sin, which, for want of that grace he will not give them, they cannot avoid: and more cruel, because that unhappy spirit 'seeketh rest, and findeth none,' so that his own restless misery is a kind of temptation to him to tempt others. But God 'resteth in his high and holy place;' so that to suppose him out of his mere motion, of his pure will and pleasure, happy as he is, to doom his creatures, whether they will or not, to endless misery, is to impute such cruelty to him, as we cannot impute even to the great enemy of God and man. It is to represent the Most High God (he that hath ears to hear, let him hear!) as more cruel, false, and unjust than the devil!

“ This is the blasphemy clearly contained in the *horrible* decree of Predestination. And here I fix my foot. On this I join issue with every assertor of it. You represent God as worse than the devil ; more false, more cruel, more unjust. But you say, you will prove it by Scripture. Hold ! What will you prove by Scripture ? that God is worse than the devil ? It cannot be. Whatever that Scripture proves, it never proves this : whatever be its true meaning, it cannot mean this. Do you ask what is its true meaning then ? If I say, I know not, you have gained nothing ; for there are many Scriptures, the true sense whereof neither you nor I shall know, till death is swallowed up in victory. But this I know, better it were to say it had no sense at all, than to say it had such a sense as this. It cannot mean, whatever it mean beside, that the God of truth is a liar. Let it mean what it will, it cannot mean that the Judge of all the world is unjust. No Scripture can mean that God is not love, or that his mercy is not over all his works : that is, whatever it prove beside, no Scripture can prove predestination.

“ This is the blasphemy for which I abhor the doctrine of Predestination ; a doctrine, upon the supposition of which, if one could possibly suppose it for a moment, call it election, reprobation, or what you please, (for all comes to the same thing,) one might say to our adversary the devil, ‘ Thou fool, why dost thou roar about any longer ? Thy lying in wait for souls is as needless and useless as our preaching. Hearest thou not, that God hath taken thy work out of thy hands, and that he doth it more effectually ? Thou, with all thy principalities and powers, canst only so assault that we may resist thee ; but he can irresistibly destroy both body and soul in hell ! Thou canst only entice ; but his unchangeable decree to leave thousands of souls in death, compels them to continue in sin, till they drop into everlasting burnings. Thou temptest ; he forceth us to be damned, for we cannot resist his will. Thou fool ! why goest thou about any longer, seeking whom thou mayest devour ? Hearest thou not that God is the devouring lion, the destroyer of souls, the murderer of men ? Moloch caused only children to pass through the fire, and that fire was soon quenched ; or, the corruptible body being consumed, its torments were at an end ; but God, thou art told, by his eternal decree, fixed before they had done good or evil, causes not only children of a span long, but the parents also, to pass through the fire of hell ; that fire which never shall be quenched : and the body which is cast thereinto, being now incorruptible and immortal, will be ever consuming and never consumed ; but the smoke of their torment, because it is God’s good pleasure, ascendeth up for ever.’

“ Oh, how would the enemy of God and man rejoice to hear these things were so ! How would he cry aloud, and spare not ! How would he lift up his voice, and say, To your tents, O Israel ! flee from the face of this God, or ye shall utterly perish. But whither will ye flee ? Into heaven ? He is there. Down to Hell ? He is there also. Ye cannot flee from an omnipresent, almighty tyrant. And whether ye flee or stay, I call heaven, his throne, and

and earth, his footstool, to witness against you : ye shall perish, ye shall die eternally ! Sing, O hell, and rejoice, ye that are under the earth ! for God, even the mighty God, hath spoken, and devoted to death thousands of souls, from the rising of the sun, unto the going down thereof. Here, O death, is thy sting ! They shall not, cannot escape, for the mouth of the Lord hath spoken it. Here, O grave, is thy victory ! Nations yet unborn, ere they have done good or evil, are doomed never to see the light of life, but thou shalt gnaw upon them for ever and ever. Let all those morning stars sing together, who fell with Lucifer, son of the morning ! Let all the sons of hell shout for joy ; for the decree is past, and who shall annul it ?

“ Yes ! the decree is past ; and so it was before the foundation of the world. But what decree ? Even this : ‘ I will set before the sons of men life and death, blessing and cursing ;’ and ‘ the soul that chooseth life shall live, as the soul that chooseth death shall die.’ This decree, whereby whom God ‘ did foreknow, he did predestinate,’ was indeed from everlasting : this, whereby all who suffer Christ to make them alive, are ‘ elect according to the foreknowledge of God,’ now standeth fast, even as the moon, and the faithful witness in heaven ; and when heaven and earth shall pass away, yet this shall not pass away, for it is as unchangeable and eternal as the being of God that gave it. This decree yields the strongest encouragement to abound in all good works, and in all holiness ; and it is a well-spring of joy, of happiness also, to our great and endless comfort. This is worthy of God. It is every way consistent with the perfection of his nature. It gives us the noblest view both of his justice, mercy, and truth. To this agrees the whole scope of the Christian Revelation, as well as all the parts thereof. To this Moses and all the prophets bear witness ; and our blessed Lord, and all his apostles. Thus Moses, in the name of his Lord, ‘ I call heaven and earth to record against you this day, that I have set before you life and death, blessing and cursing, therefore choose life, that thou and thy seed may live.’ Thus Ezekiel (to cite one prophet for all), ‘ The soul that sinneth, it shall die ; the son shall not bear (eternally) the iniquity of the father. The righteousness of the righteous shall be upon him, and the wickedness of the wicked shall be upon him.’ Thus our blessed Lord, ‘ If any man thirst, let him come to me and drink !’ Thus his great apostle St. Paul, ‘ God commandeth all men, every where, to repent.’ *All men, every where ;* every man, in every place, without any exception, either of place or person. Thus St. James, ‘ If any of you lack wisdom, let him ask of God, who giveth to all men liberally, and upbraideth not, and it shall be given him !’ Thus St. Peter, ‘ The Lord is not willing that any should perish, but that all should come to repentance.’ And thus St. John, ‘ If any man sin, we have an advocate with the Father ; and he is the propitiation for our sins ; and not for ours only, but for the sins of the whole world.’

“ O hear ye this, ye that forget God ! ye cannot charge your death upon him, ‘ Have I any pleasure at all that the wicked should

should die? saith the Lord God. Repent and turn from all your transgressions, so iniquity shall not be your ruin. Cast away from you all your transgressions, whereby ye have transgressed; for why will ye die, O house of Israel? For I have no pleasure in the death of him that dieth, saith the Lord God. Wherefore, turn yourselves, and live ye.' — 'As I live, saith the Lord God, I have no pleasure in the death of the wicked. Turn ye, turn ye from your evil ways; for why will ye die, O house of Israel?' "

This is a good specimen of the terrible and Æschylean species of pulpit-eloquence; and Wesley seems, in his invocation of the infernal spirits, to have laid aside his own Belial mode of insinuation, in order to assume the Moloch fierceness of his adversary: making all his antagonist's own dread artillery to recoil on himself. — Whitefield now feared much that Wesley was irreclaimable, but still expressed his persuasion that "when Christ should come to judgement he should see dear Mr. Wesley convinced of election and everlasting love, and should behold him casting his crown down at the feet of the Lamb, and as it were filled with a holy blushing for opposing the Divine sovereignty in the manner he had done." He also wrote an answer to this sermon, which was published and zealously circulated both in America and in England. He even had some interviews with Wesley after his return to England, but told him plainly that they preached two different gospels; and from that time to the period of their death, each preached, and proclaimed, and thundered against the notions of the other, as pestilent heresies and doctrines dam-natory. Whitefield died in the year 1770, in America. Soon after his return to England in 1740, he had married; and from 1748 till the year before his death, he had put himself in a great degree under the protection of that "noble and elect lady" the Countess of Huntingdon. He had, indeed, before his marriage, proposed to another lady in America, but she was 'only in a seeking state.'

The following letter from Whitefield to the Countess gives a droll view of the early stage of that spiritual connection which afterward became so great:

"Ever since the reading your Ladyship's condescending letter, my soul has been overpowered with his presence, who is all in all. When your Ladyship styled me *your friend*, I was amazed at your condescension; but when I thought that Jesus was my friend, it quite overcame me, and made me to lie prostrate before him, crying, Why me? why me? I just now rose from the ground, after praying the Lord of all lords to water your soul, honoured madam, every moment. As there seems to be a door opening for the nobility to hear the Gospel, I will defer my journey, and, God willing, preach at your Ladyship's. Oh, that God may be with me, and

and make me humble ! I am ashamed to think your Ladyship will admit me under your roof ; much more am I amazed that the Lord Jesus will make use of such a creature as I am ; — quite astonished at your Ladyship's condescension, and the unmerited superabounding grace and goodness of Him who has loved me, and given Himself for me."

Wesley had a longer existence allotted to him than Whitefield, for he lived till the year 1793, when he had attained the advanced age of ninety years. He continued from the time of his breach with Whitefield indefatigable in promulgating his own doctrines, and in establishing a regular discipline for his followers. From the germ of policy, one expedient sprang up after another, till the whole mass was matured, and expanded itself in an harmonious and consistent system. At last, there were found to be circuits, and helpers, and local preachers, and leaders ; and the pernicious assemblies of bands, and select bands, of watch-nights, and love-feasts, were fixed in their periods and permanently instituted. According as his societies increased, he seems to have waxed strong in his own conceit, and a series of miracles is made to attest the truth of the doctrines which he taught. He travelled incessantly from one part of the kingdom to another, visiting both Scotland and Ireland ; and he sent his missionaries forth into America and the West Indies. He even assumed episcopal powers when the Americans were in want of persons regularly ordained, and consecrated and commissioned Dr. Coke as Bishop for those parts. When he married, his domestic duties occasioned no cessation of his public toils, for he journeyed and wandered about as before ; and, when his wife quitted him in a fit of jealousy, he never gave himself the trouble of recalling her. If any casualty befell any of his opponents, he considered it as a judgment of Heaven and a declaration of Providence in his favour ; or at least he endeavoured to turn the event to such an account in the opinion of others. By zeal, by a mixture of credulity and imposture, by personal energy, and by great policy in selecting and arranging the labours of his preachers, this extraordinary man left at his death a peculiar community which recognized him as their head, consisting of members in the British dominions to the number of 76,968, and in the United States to the number of 57,621.

On reviewing all the features of his character and life, Wesley seems to have been a man of fervent ambition, and of very variable temperament ; whose imagination in early life had been exalted by lonely habits, abstinence, and austerities. He appears to have been often sensible of the sort of

irregular enthusiasm under which he laboured: but the struggle between the illusions of his fancy and his sounder judgment never produced a decisive victory on either side. Sometimes his imagination predominated, and we perceive the genuine infatuated mystic: but more frequently we see him employing the delusions and insanity of others as engines of his own craft. In some cases, the dissimulation which he practised cannot be distinguished from the facility which he evinced in being a dupe to the imposture of others. For instance; with regard to the extravagances of George Bell, who cured a woman of some complaint in her breast by his prayers, and attempted to restore a blind man to sight by touching his eyes with spittle and pronouncing the word *Ephphatha*, it is impossible to say whether Wesley was deceived or was the conscious promoter of deceit. His own account does not render the matter clearer:

“ ‘ Perhaps,” he says, “ reason unenlightened makes me simple. If I knew less of human nature I should be more apt to stumble at the weakness of it; and if I had not too, by nature or by grace, some clearness of apprehension. It is owing to this (under God) that I never staggered at all at the reveries of George Bell. I saw instantly from the beginning, and at the beginning, what was right, and what was wrong; but I saw, withal, ‘ I have many things to speak, but ye cannot bear them now.’ Hence many imagine I was imposed upon, and applauded themselves on their own greater perspicuity, as they do at this day. But if you knew it, said his friend to Gregorio Lopez, why did you not tell me? I answer with him, ‘ I do not speak all I know, but what I judge needful.’ ”

Even when he saw this fact and these individual follies, Wesley was still the idol of systems and the dupe of new phrases; and he seems to us a remarkable instance of the influence which general notions and cant words retain over the mind in its passive state. We find the same peculiarity in the character of Mohammed and in that of Cromwell; and indeed in all mystics endowed with natural sagacity. Their character has quite different phases under different circumstances. Sometimes we perceive their reason in full splendour, dissipating the mists of superstition, and shewing the clouds of bigotry and faction in the most grotesque and fantastic shapes as in scorn, or marshalling them as ministers and vehicles of its own radiance. At other times we observe the same mighty reason suffering eclipse from the intervention of some malignant planet, which before seemed but to reflect and add to its glory, and shorn of its beams by the ascendancy of fogs which previously it was able to disperse or to irradiate at pleasure. The quick succession, indeed, in such minds, of the suggestions of sagacity, folly, and policy, or of

scepticism

scepticism and superstition, form a curious matter of speculation to those who study the human understanding, and are sensible of the slight limits by which reason is separated from madness. — Where Wesley did reason, one point he always consulted, his love of power; and his ambitious temper made him reconcile the grossest inconsistencies. It was on this principle that he exercised persecution in his fit of antient ecclesiastical discipline in Georgia; that he rejected and defied all antient ecclesiastical discipline when he consecrated Dr. Coke; that he propounded the question of his marriage to the Moravian elders; and that he defamed their whole body, and scoffed at their leader Zinzendorff as the “proteus Lord Fraydeck, Domine de Thurstain.”

With regard to the manner in which Mr. Southey has executed his task as the biographer of so extraordinary a personage, and which we began by commending in general terms, we must farther observe that we cannot speak too highly of the industry which he has shewn in accumulating his materials, or of the good sense which has regulated the selection and distribution of them *: nor do we wish to be understood, by the objections to some points of detail which we feel ourselves bound to express, as willing to detract from the great and substantial merits of so laborious a performance. We think, however, that Mr. Southey has given way too much to his poetical feelings, when he favours us with several pages of text and thirty pages of notes about the little spirit *Jeffray*, and says that the conversion of one stray infidel would be a good reason for the appearance of a ghost *now and then*. We are inclined to attribute to the same feelings his predilection for the notion, that there may be something mysterious and prophetic in dreams; a predilection which the reader will find seriously announced in a note (p. 415.) in the first volume. We think also that Mr. S. travels a little out of his element, when he talks (vol. i. p. 329.) ‘of a philosophy of home-growth, the shallowest that ever imposed on the human understanding;’ and we suspect that what he terms ‘political antinomianism’ is the honest English doctrine of resistance to arbitrary power, by virtue of which the house of Brunswick ascended the English throne: while those ‘principles of order and legitimate government,’ of which he speaks in his tirade on the American war, are nothing else in fact than those notions which the baneful and corrupt court-sycophants in the

* As a proof of the quantity of these materials, we may state that his list of printed books which he consulted amounts to above thirty. He has ‘had no private sources of information.’

time of the Stuarts so successfully instilled into the sovereigns as to lose for James II. the crown of these realms. When Mr. S. makes it a point to be severe in his animadversions on certain classes of Dissenters, he does not shew in that respect much political discernment, nor sufficiently recollect the true principles of protestantism. It is rather curious that the two subjects, on which it has fallen in his way to eulogize our late King, are the very two topics to which the real friends of that monarch's memory would be most cautious of alluding; viz. his fondness for the American war, and his hostility to any alleviation of the disability of his Roman Catholic subjects. As to the latter question, we have recently on many occasions discussed it at length: — as to the former, we do assert, and always have asserted, that the claims of this country on its American colonies were an usurpation, and inconsistent with the fundamental principles of the British constitution; by which the duty of contributing to the expences of government is counterpoised by the right to appoint representatives for ascertaining the amount of those contributions, and checking the application of them.

Mr. Southey also deems it proper to fall on a pamphlet written by Dr. Price, which he tells us effected its share of mischief in its day; and he gives us a quotation from Mr. Coleridge, who terms it "the blundering work of the worthy Doctor." We might well refrain in scorn from replying to such a remark. Dr. Price was, at least, always honest in his intentions, and in general was not a remarkable blunderer in reason. Mr. Coleridge may be told that Dr. P. never acted or wrote in a manner that was deserving of contempt; never preached sermons as an itinerant in the garment of a layman; nor delivered any "*concio ad populum*" to inflame the lower orders against the higher, or any "lay-sermon" to inflame the higher orders against the lower. Nor was he a mystic whose head was crazed with the jargon of Plotinus in some "pew-fangled" translation, or with that of Kant in the original. That which he believed he understood: that which he professed he practised: if he wanted Rousseau's tinsel-eloquence, he was at least free from Rousseau's benevolence of imagination and selfishness of heart; and he was never either a vagrant or sycophantic vaunter of independence, or a prevaricating champion of truth. Mr. Southey also might have respected his industry, and sympathized in his domestic virtues, although the Doctor could not borrow experience from age, and accommodate himself to new doctrines in vogue when he found the inconvenience of popular opinions. We must admit that Dr. Price was deficient in some sorts of invention, to the last; and

and that he never made that discovery which Mr. Southey communicates as his own conviction in the work before us, 'that a man's faith depends much more on his will than the world generally imagines.'

On the whole, the style of this biography is very free and manly, but some objectionable phrases occur; such as 'a few bucks clapped and encored him,' vol. ii. p. 488. *To join issue* with means to come to a point of opposition with any person, but Mr. Southey uses the phrase in a sense directly opposite, vol. i. p. 27., as if it meant to concur or coincide. — A head of Wesley forms the frontispiece to the first volume, and Whitefield, with uplifted arms, stands "crying aloud and sparing not" in the portico of the second.

ART. V. *Desultory Thoughts in London, Titus and Gisippus, with other Poems.* By Charles Lloyd, Author of "Nugæ Canoræ," and Translator of "Alfieri's Tragedies." 12mo. pp. 252. 7s. 6d. Boards. Baldwyns, Newgate-Street. 1821.

It appears that our modern poets are beginning to feel rather at a loss for materials, on which to display the "cunning of their divine art;" or surely we should not see them reduced to such extreme difficulties and perplexities as we have sometimes witnessed in their choice of subject, and more particularly in their manner of treating it. To persons inexperienced in black-letter lore and modern book-manufacturing, it may seem, from the present glut of the literary market, as if no great stretch of faculties were required to compose what is very aptly termed *a work*: but to entertain such an opinion is a cruel mistake, and by no means rendering justice to the untold sufferings of the "*irritabile genus*." We have in fact an allusion to the employment in the "*improbis labor*" of Virgil, and in the more authenticated but malicious observation of, "Oh, that mine enemy had written a book;" which evidently betrays a wish that he may have undergone those tortures of heart and brain which are essential to the weaving, like a silk-worm, of the "golden threads of thought and poesy" out of his own body, unless he happens to have been some notorious plagiarist.

We see, however, that, in spite of all this, "of making many books there is no end;" and that, though "reading is a weariness of the flesh," they are consumed with much more avidity and much less discrimination than formerly. We are in some degree induced to forgive this "laborious failing" in the writing-portion of the community, in consideration of their exertions to procure us variety and delicacy "in the feast

of

of reason and the flow of soul," and viands suitable to the most fastidious as well as to the most ravenous taste: but, of all modes that the ingenuity of modern authorship has devised for recreating or reforming the mind of man, none appear to have been more eagerly applied than stimulants, or strong force-meats of literary aliment, with an heterogeneous mixture of style in serving it up that is calculated at once to allure and to strengthen the reader's appetite. With serious history is mingled the entertainment and sometimes *the fiction* of the novel; while our best romances are founded on the deeper interest and darker deeds of our historical memoirs. Pursuing this convenient system of encroaching on each other's territories, in order to enlarge and to enrich their own peculiar province in the literary world, our poets have also, of late, cast a longing eye on the old and fertile region of Italy; and they have scrupled not to draw largely from that storehouse of whatever is great or beautiful, alike in nature and in art, to give life and imagination to the weaker efforts of their own jaded muse. After having exhausted their respective prototypes in the epic, the dramatic, and the lyric species of poetry, our modern versifiers have endeavoured, as a last resource, to amuse their readers with imitative specimens of the comic, heroic, or burlesque geniuses who made the courts of Europe ring with laughter under the inspiring auspices of the Medici and the house of Ferrara. From "the garden of Europe," the notes of its native songsters were caught by many of our poetical mock-birds in the "sunny morning of our fame;" and the amusing strains of Byron, of Wastle, and of Frere, shew that we have not yet forgotten to avail ourselves of the ludicrous and somewhat too licentious genius of Ariosto and the Pulci. Yet it appears that, not being satisfied with a few illustrious specimens from our first masters, we are to be *deluged* with imitations, not merely at second hand, but absolutely thrice filtered through the strainers of Messrs. Wilson, Lloyd, and Cornwall; and so far from their receiving poignancy from the rectifying medium, we thus find the sterling qualities of the old writers really *softened and let down, usque ad nauseam*.

We cannot possibly surmise why such poems as "Diego de Montilla," and 'Desultory Thoughts,' with 'Titus and Gissippus,' are to be thrown into a facetious shape; when it must be evident to the weakest of their readers, if not to the authors themselves, that the poetic powers of those authors are by no means calculated for the display of the broad or finer shades of humorous character and exaggerated descriptions, with the unexpected similitudes or union of things apparently

rently dissimilar, in which it is thought that the soul of wit generally resides. That the author before us has partly mistaken the nature and tendency of his own genius, (for genius he possesses in no common degree,) we might easily adduce evidence from numerous passages of his poems; and that, with this wrong estimate of his actual powers, he exhibits talents of a more pleasing description in the pathetic and narrative line, we have frequently taken occasion to observe in former Numbers of our Review. Farther to prove the justness of our observations, we extract the following picturesque and beautiful description of Autumn, from the well-known Grecian story of Titus and Gisippus; a story in which disinterested friendship and passionate love are here finely contrasted and developed, with much richness of fancy and felicity of expression.

- ‘ That path contiguous to a road *did* lie,
Which from Piræus’ Port towards Athens led;
As it *did* chance Gisippus came thereby,
Having his unimparted errand sped.
Scarce had the morning dawn’d; the troubled sky,
‘Mid billowy clouds, was streak’d with lurid red;
And earth, and heaven, the trees which, ere that night,
Thick foliag’d stood, all spake the past storm’s might.
- ‘ Towards winter Autumn then was verging; — then,
For the first season, with unmuffled face,
Had winter dar’d to stalk thro’ ev’ry scene,
And rob the pale earth of that lingering grace
Of tints, of flowers, of leaves, which seem’d to lean,
With a meek trust, in the prolong’d embrace
Of nature: for the first time, then arose
The distant mountains clad with morning snows.
- ‘ Upon the half-stripp’d branches, which *did* bend
To the wild blast, here droop’d a yellow leaf,
And there a brown one. With day’s light *did* blend
A sombre shade which spoke of nature’s grief. —
To the eager air the season seem’d to lend
A piercing shrewdness; and if still a sheaf
Broke the long furrows’ level, soddening rains
Had smear’d its golden hue with dingy stains.
- ‘ The leaves whirl’d eddying towards the plashy ground;
Their lustre gone, the shrivell’d flow’rets droop’d;
And, from afar, on every side around,
Were heard deep bodings, as if tempests, coop’d
In viewless caves, thence issued with profound
And gusty menaces: the night-wolf whoop’d
A dismal requiem to the waning year: —
All sights look’d sorrow, and all sounds breath’d fear.

‘Th’ autumnal moon with pale and watery face
 Westward was verging, and her shadowy rim
 Thin, floating, mist-like clouds, seem’d to embrace;
 Hovering about her, as if they would dim
 Her silver light; so shorn her golden grace,
 So like a spectre did her glances swim
 On that cold morning’s brow, that she might well
 The demon seem that weaves his blighting spells.’

With the exception of the humorous portions of the poems before us, which we confess we do not relish, we find many brilliant and touching passages, with descriptions of uncommon force and beauty. Among the variety of themes on which the poet discourses in the range of his ‘Desultory Thoughts,’ thus conveying the feelings and opinions of a man of taste and genius on all that is most worthy of observation in one of the first cities of the world, we are gratified with many pictures of life and manners, of local interests, and poetic associations, clothed in the language of sincerity and truth; and breathing a spirit of gentle and humane philosophy, delighting to praise that which is great and laudable, and to extenuate that which it cannot commend. Indeed, when we consider the depth of thought, and the speculative and metaphysical reasoning, which are discoverable in many passages of this poem, we are inclined to regard the title of ‘Desultory’ as sufficiently modest; especially when mottoed with a line of Tasso, in that *pretension-less* spirit for which so few authors are remarkable:

“*Brama assai, poco spera, e nulla chiede.*”

It was doubtless the same unaspiring and affectionate feeling that dictated the opening sonnet to Sophia; which, like many others of Mr. L.’s pieces of a lyric cast, often catches the spirit of those “high thoughts seated in a heart of courtesy,” that belonged to a more chivalric and devoted age.

‘*Dedicatory Sonnet. — To Sophia.*

‘Let it be never said, that I can bring
 A tuneful trophy, and disloyally
 To any one present it but to thee
 Who doth inspire me each time that I sing!
 Thou art my muse! Nay more, as with a wing
 Near me thou hoverest of tranquillity,
 Making home, *home!* All that works silently
 In me of human comfort, so that spring
 (If chance they spring) flowers round my humble path,
 All from thee comes! When thou wert far away,
 The lays I breath’d all told of grief and scath;
 They were but shadows of a better day. —
 Me thou refreshest as the earth spring-showers;
 Due is the wreath to her who rais’d its flowers!’

The various matter, which comes under the author's discussion, is divided into long or short books as it is more or less attractive; interspersed with pleasing anecdotes and digressions, moral or humorous remarks, and metaphysical or passionate lucubrations. The poem is composed in the octave stanza, with three recurring rhymes, the last two heroics, which is peculiar to the Italians, and so fashionable in the present day. It discovers much ease and variety in the versification, as well as in the sentiments, changing

“ From grave to gay, from lively to severe;”

and it runs through many agreeable subjects in a very pleasing manner. We have, for instance, a description of Hyde Park under the circumstance of a hoar-frost; and we cannot resist the temptation of giving one stanza:

‘ It is a dainty sight! See how the trees,
With tinsel frost-work on each twig, impearl'd,
Enchantment's forms seem more like, mimickries
Of elfish ornament, than of this world!
I know not where the fancy more can please
Herself, through necromantic day-dreams whirl'd
Than in a woody scene, in mist half lost,
Arrayed in all the brilliancy of frost.’

The subjects which follow are intitled *The Portrait, The Consecration of the Temple by Solomon, A Female Portrait* (as companion to the former), *Stanzas, &c., The Influence of the Imagination, Reflections on Unfortunate Females, Rewards and Punishments, The Millenium, or Second Advent*. All these are comprehended in the first book on London; and in the second we open a little on the transcendental philosophy, with metaphysical inquiries into the *Connection between different degrees of spiritualization, &c. The Folly of making Works of Imagination, Solitude and Society, The Blessedness of Divine Communion, On the Inefficacy of all Worldly Objects, Refutation of the Doctrine of Expediency, Moral and Religious Application of the Theory of Manner and Manners, &c.* We have chosen to enumerate these titles to give our readers an idea of the nature of the subjects, and to supply a table of contents, in which the volume is deficient. We notice also some appropriate and excellent lines on the reformation produced in Newgate by Mrs. Fry, which appear to have come warm and unpremeditated from the heart of a poet; and to these we may add the sweet and impassioned strains in which the writer embodies the recollections of childhood, occasionally intermingled with the tones of a loftier lyre:

“ *Emula delle trombe, empie le setve.*”

‘ Oh,

- ' Oh, were the eye of youth a moment ours !
 When every flower that gemm'd the various earth
 Brought down from Heaven enjoyment's genial showers !
 And every bird, of everlasting mirth
 Prophecied to us in romantic bowers !
 Love was the garniture, whose blameless birth
 Caus'd that each filmy web where dew-drops trembled,
 The gossamery haunt of elves resembled !
- ' We can remember earliest days of spring,
 When violets blue and white, and primrose pale,
 Like callow nestlings 'neath their mother's wing,
 Each peep'd from under the broad leaf's green veil.
 When streams look'd blue ; and thin clouds clustering
 O'er the wide empyrean did prevail,
 Rising like incense from the breathing world,
 Whose gracious aspect was with dew impearl'd.
- ' When a soft moisture, steaming every where,
 To the earth's countenance mellow hues imparted ;
 When sylvan choristers self-pois'd in air,
 Or perched on boughs, in shrilly quiverings darted
 Their little raptures forth ; when the warm glare
 (While glancing lights backwards and forwards started,
 As if with meteors silver-sheath'd 'twere flooded)
 Sultry, and silent, on the hill's turf brooded.
- ' Oh, in these moments we such joy have felt,
 As if the earth were nothing but a shrine ;
 Where all, or awe inspir'd, or made one melt
 Gratefully towards its Architect divine !
 Father ! in future, (as I once have dwelt
 Within that very sanctuary of thine,
 When shapes, and sounds, seem'd as but modes of Thee !)
 That with experience gain'd were heaven to me !
- ' Oft in the fullness of the joy ye give,
 Oh, days of youth ! in summer's noon-tide hours,
 Did I a depth of quietness receive
 From insects' drowsy hum, that all my powers
 Would baffle to pourtray ! Let them that live
 In vacant solitude, speak from their bowers
 What nameless pleasures letter'd ease may cheer,
 Thee, Nature ! bless'd to mark with eye and ear ! —
- ' Who can have watch'd the wild rose' blushing dye,
 And seen what treasures its rich cups contain ;
 Who, of soft shades the fine variety,
 From white to deepest flush of vermeil stain ?
 Who, when impearl'd with dew-drop's radiancy
 Its petals breath'd perfume, while he did strain
 His *very being*, lest the sense should fail
 To imbibe each sweet its beauties did exhale ?

Who

- Who amid lanes, on eve of summer days,
Which sheep brouze, could the thicket's wealth behold?
The fragrant honey-suckle's bowery maze?
The furze-bush, with its vegetable gold?
In every satin sheath that helps to raise
The fox-glove's cone, the figures manifold
With such a dainty exquisiteness wrought? —
Nor grant that thoughtful love they all have taught?
- The daisy, cowslip, each have to them given —
The wood anemone, the strawberry wild,
Grass of Parnassus, meek as star of even; —
Bright, as the brightening eye of smiling child,
And bathed in blue transparency of heaven,
Veronica; the primrose pale, and mild; —
Of charms (of which to speak no tongue is able)
Intercommunion incommunicable!

Few who have any reasonable claim to taste or feeling will be inclined, after an impartial perusal of the poetical works of Mr. Lloyd, to question his possession of very striking and superior qualities; viz. those of originality, sincerity, and pathetic powers of composition. To this spirit of earnestness and truth, united with command of language and ease of versification, he is indebted for the high degree of interest which he awakens in the mind of his readers, and for the reputation which he has already acquired. In delineating the bolder as well as the milder features of external nature, in mourning over the affections and touching the passions of the soul, in awakening those hidden chords that vibrate in the inmost recesses of the bosom, in catching the finer shades and less perceptible operations of human love, with its frailties, sorrows, and holier consolations, he is excelled by no living writer that we know: but to his genius, which is indisputable and great, he unites very little *talent*. His powers are also peculiar, exercised almost involuntarily, and brooking little of judicious criticism and controul as depending on himself. He thus appears in his native and unpolished strength, with all his virtues and his faults about him, and is seen both to more and to less advantage than the race of tutored and imitative poets of the Italian and metropolitan school, who *study* with intense pains to appear correct and natural. We should be sorry, however, to behold Mr. L. misapply the gifts with which nature has endowed him. Let him beware, then, of hazarding the laurels which he has won, by yielding to the prevailing rage of rivalling the comic authors of Italy. Neither he nor the pseudonymous Mr. Barry Cornwall will have the remotest chance of succeeding in such an attempt, which is sufficiently hazardous in Lord Byron and in Frere. As far, therefore, as

we perceive a tendency to this *facetious disposition* in the poems before us, we enter our unqualified protest against it as trivial and ridiculous, and betraying a lamentable want of judgment and poetic taste.

ART. VI. *An Historic Sketch of the Causes, Progress, Extent, and Mortality of the Contagious Fever Epidemic in Ireland, during the Years 1817, 1818, and 1819: with numerous Tables, Official Documents, and Private Communications, illustrative of its General History, and the System of Management adopted for its Suppression.* By William Harty, M. B. Physician to the King's Hospital and to the Prisons of Dublin. 8vo. pp. 512. Dublin, Hodges and M'Arthur; London, Hurst and Co. 1820.

ART. VII. *Observations on the Condition of the Middle and Lower Classes in the North of Ireland, as it tends to promote the Diffusion of Contagious Fever, with the History and Treatment of the late Epidemic Disorder, as it prevailed in an extensive District of that Country; and a Detail of the Measures adopted to arrest its Progress.* By Francis Rogan, M. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 159. 6s. boards. Whitmore and Fenn.

ART. VIII. *Second Edition of the Morbid Anatomy of the Brain, in Typhus or Brain Fevers; to which are added, Cases of the Epidemic of 1818, with a few Remarks on its Nature and Mode of Treatment.* By Thomas Mills, M. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 67. Dublin, Hodges and Co.; London, Underwood.

THE epidemic which raged in Ireland during the years 1817, 1818, and 1819, although no longer exciting that keen interest which it then attracted, still furnishes much matter for the consideration both of the physician and the statesman. Indeed, we are of opinion that now, when the misery and devastation which it produced have passed away, we are better qualified to form a correct estimate of its causes, its true nature, and the properest modes of removing and preventing so tremendous an evil. The consideration of this subject, however, involves so many discussions respecting the political and moral peculiarities of the sister-island, and opens so wide a field of medical inquiry, that we feel most sensibly how very inadequate our limits are for its proper treatment.

A very intelligent Irish physician, Dr. Barker, has stated his belief that the epidemic fever of Ireland arose from imported contagion, brought from the theatre of war on the Continent; and many authors of distinguished ability have maintained that typhus acknowledges no other source but contagion. A remarkable instance of the difficulties to which this opinion has sometimes reduced medical writers is furnished by Dr.

Bancroft,

Bancroft, who asserts that the fever, which spread to so fatal an extent in the army that returned from Corunna, was produced by typhus-infection, communicated by the dispersed and flying troops of Romana, as they crossed the British line of march at Astorga : — but surely the fatigues, privations, and disasters of that portion of the British army were amply sufficient, when followed by confinement and sudden abundance of provisions on ship-board, to account for the breaking out of typhus, without thus having recourse to an imaginary communication of infection. We agree with Dr. Harty in believing that typhus often arises spontaneously, independent of contagion ; and that it may be afterward extensively propagated by acquiring a contagious character. Of the spontaneous origin of typhus he has given a curious instance, which we beg to quote in his own words, as it serves to illustrate the atrocious extravagance of character which is sometimes to be found even in the superior ranks of life.

‘ The sister and nurse of one of the parties is still living to authenticate the facts I am about to state. A gentleman (if he can be so denominated) of some property, residing in a town of our northern province, was suspected of confining and otherwise ill-treating his wife : these rumours were for some time prevalent before any person ventured to interfere. At length two gentlemen, one of them a clergyman of the established church, roused by the nature and extent of the rumours, resolved to ascertain the truth, and having obtained the necessary authority from a magistrate, visited the house and examined every apartment for the wretched object of their humane search : at first in vain : at length a small closet door attracted their notice, and having insisted on its being opened, both gentlemen eagerly entered, and as precipitately retreated : one was immediately seized with vomiting, the other (the clergyman) felt sick and faint. After a little, however, they recruited and called the wretched woman from her prison-hole, in which she had been for weeks immured. It was a small dark closet, without light or air except what was occasionally admitted through the door, and in it had this miserable being been left, without change of clothes, stretched on a bed of straw amidst ordure and filth of every description. At the end of a week both gentlemen were affected by symptoms of febrile indisposition, were confined almost on the same day to their beds, from which the benevolent clergyman never arose : the other recovered with difficulty after a severe struggle. His sister who attended him night and day during the whole course of his illness, and from whom I received the above statement, has several times detailed to me the symptoms and progress of his disease : it would be impossible to mistake it, its character in every respect answering to that of the worst form of phrenitic typhus ; the case of his friend and companion was in every thing similar, except in the

fatal termination. And yet the wretched woman, who had lived for so many weeks in such an impure atmosphere, was free from disease of any febrile character, during her confinement, and continued so after her liberation.

From Dr. Harty's experience, as physician to the prisons of Dublin, he is enabled to adduce other proofs, establishing still more satisfactorily the spontaneous origin of contagious fever.

Although the epidemic fever of Ireland most probably did arise independently of contagion, yet it must be admitted, by all who are acquainted with that country, that a leaven of typhus-infection constantly exists there in considerable quantity. The returns from all the large towns prove the existence of typhus in every season of the year, in a state of greater or less severity; and it seems only to require a certain pressure of distress, to cause the disease to burst forth and spread with destructive malignity throughout the whole island. Indeed, the poverty and indolence of the lower ranks, joined to the neglect of cleanliness in their persons and habitations, and the unfortunate habit of indulgence in the immoderate use of ardent spirits, to which so many are addicted, render that country an appropriate field for the propagation of pestilential disease. A redundant population, multiplying and swarming in the midst of all this distress, adds to the misery, and makes the mortality still more frightfully alarming. This excess of population, which without doubt had a powerful effect in increasing the ravages of the fever, may be justly considered both as a cause and an effect of the degraded state of the lower ranks in Ireland. The simple manners and few wants of the peasantry facilitate early marriages, and the rearing of large families; while the population thus produced causes a pressure on every side, which prevents the lower ranks from rising above their abject situation, and acquiring that increased civilization which operates as a check to the multiplication of the species. Dr. Harty has furnished us with abundant evidence that the late epidemic fever is to be ascribed chiefly to the scarcity and bad quality of the provisions, and to the want of industrious occupation; and he has corroborated this opinion by a reference to other periods at which similar epidemics existed. In 1801 and 1810, fever, to a great extent, prevailed in Ireland, in consequence of dearth; and to go back to a still earlier period, in 1741 a widely diffused pestilential fever devastated the whole of the island. It is computed that the population of that country then amounted only to two millions; yet, during 1740 and 1741, not fewer than 80,000 persons are said to have

have fallen victims to the combined effects of famine, fever, and dysentery. On comparing the accounts of these epidemics with that of 1817 and the following years, we find that the fever was nearly of the same type, and differed in scarcely any particular from the common fever of Ireland, except in its widely extended diffusion. It appears, indeed, that the recent epidemic proved proportionally less fatal than the common fever of the country.

To give a picture of the distresses which afflicted Ireland, before and during the late epidemic, we quote the following brief passage from Dr. Harty:

‘Famine was most severely felt in the north, and in the south-west, from the failure not only of the potatoe but of the oat crop: the poor were reduced in many places to such distress as to be content with the most disgusting substitutes for food; to eat wild esculent plants, and even risk all hope of future subsistence by digging and consuming the seed potatoes they had lately planted.’

Dr. Rogan also states, in reference to the town and neighbourhood of Strabane;

‘Of the causes which chiefly conduced towards subjecting the poor to the influence of contagion, the most powerful seemed to be depression of mind, occasioned by the general privations under which they laboured. The despair to which they were reduced could not be more strikingly exemplified, than by the apathy very generally manifested on the death of their children or relatives. They who under other circumstances would have deplored it as the greatest misfortune, almost rejoiced in being released from the pain of witnessing the distress and suffering endured by those most dear to them, whilst they were incapable of affording them the slightest alleviation; and the selfish feelings engendered in the minds of many yielded a gleam of hope, by inducing them to suppose that every diminution in the number for whom it was necessary to provide sustenance, might be regarded as a positive good to themselves. Nothing short of extreme misery could have wrought so sudden and complete a change in the feelings of a people, whose attachment to their offspring and relatives is proverbial. The extent to which this cause operated is hardly to be calculated, as it is probably below the truth, when it is stated that one-fifth of the whole population was reduced to depend on charity for subsistence, after having sold their furniture, cattle, and most of their clothing, to purchase food.’ — ‘Labourers seldom eat more than one meal in the day, generally consisting of oaten cake with butter-milk, and of these they often had too small a quantity to satisfy the cravings of hunger. Their children, who could worse bear the want of food, sought for help throughout the neighbourhood, and were prevented from suffering to so great a degree as their parents, by the humanity of all who could spare any thing towards their support: still their emaciated

frames and sunken features shewed plainly the extent of even their privations. —

The clothing and persons of those received into the Fever Hospital proved clearly the total inattention of the poor with regard to these points. Their bodies were often so bronzed with filth that the natural colour of the skin could hardly be perceived. Their hair was filled with vermin, and the smell of many was so offensive, as to render it a very disgusting office, on the part of the nurse-tenders, to free them from the accumulation of dirt with which they were loaded. Their clothing was often in so foul a state that it was thought more economical to destroy it, and supply its place with new, than to attempt cleansing it, as it would, in many instances, not have been worth the expense of washing. This statement is applicable in the fullest extent to the begging poor, who formed a large proportion of the patients in hospital; but, with somewhat less strength of colouring, it will serve for most of those received into that institution, except in the instances of servants brought there from the houses of persons of respectability.

From Dr. H.'s comparison between the two epidemics of 1741 and 1817, it appears that the state of the weather differed altogether in these two periods; and therefore to that cause nothing can be ascribed as giving rise to the fever. We agree with him most cordially in rejecting all reference to occult constitutions of the atmosphere, which, by many writers, have been regarded as the causes of epidemics; for such language we must consider as a simple admission of our ignorance of the real cause of the disease. There is much in the peculiar habits and manners of the Irish to favour the diffusion of contagious fever, when it is once generated. Not to speak of the effects of poverty and rudeness in their persons and cabins, we may allude to the crowded state of their habitations; to their numerous and sometimes riotous meetings at fairs and wakes; and, above all, to the multitudes of mendicants traversing the country in all directions, and disseminating, during the existence of an epidemic, the seeds of disease in every family which they visit. That the dread of contagion has long prevailed throughout Ireland may be inferred from the established practice of burning the straw, on which a person has died, immediately after the decease; and the writer of this article had a curious proof of such fear of infection, when attending a poor family afflicted with typhus in the west of Ireland. Having desired the casements of the house to be kept open, for the benefit of ventilation, the neighbours became actually clamorous to have them closed, lest the contagion should, in this way, spread into the adjoining dwellings. Even the father of the family, who was the only

only member of it that escaped the disease, communicated with them merely by a window opening into a back court, without entering the house; and he seemed to observe as much precaution as if his family had been suffering under the plague. This was previous to the appearance of the epidemic fever now under consideration.

It appears, from the present work, that a gradual increase of fever took place in Cork from the year 1815: but the author does not date the commencement of the epidemic earlier than August in the following year. At Enniskillen, it is stated to have made its appearance in July, 1816, and at Killala and Tipperary in September. At Cove, where if it had been of foreign importation it should have commenced its attack, it shewed itself in September also. In the close of 1816, and during the succeeding year, it extended to almost every part of Ireland: but it did not reach Dublin, so as to excite notice, till September, 1817; although in Sligo, Ballyshannon, Strabane, and Derry, it had appeared in the spring of that year. The towns of Dingle and Wexford are stated to have escaped it till the summer of 1818: which is ascribed by Dr. H. to the more abundant supply of provisions at moderate prices, and the greater facility of obtaining employment at those places. He adds also that, from their situation, they were less liable to receive infection by means of strolling mendicants; though we fear that no part of Ireland, unless when a very vigilant police is in action, can boast of immunity from this general visitation.

From these particulars, we learn that the disease arose at the same time in remote parts of the island: but that it fell first, and with most severity, on those places in which the return of peace had thrown numbers out of employment, and the pressure of scarcity was most heavily felt. It is remarked by Dr. Harty that in the country the fever prevailed in the worst form, and appeared earliest in mountainous districts; that the inhabitants of marshy and boggy grounds were the next in the rank of sufferers; and that, on a dry limestone soil, the disease was least prevalent. Perhaps we may consider this as the effect of the comparative indigence of the inhabitants of the several situations.

The epidemic, which thus began its destructive ravages in the autumn of 1816, continued them in most of the provinces of Ireland till the spring of 1819: but in Ulster it subsided to the usual average of fever, as early as the spring and summer of 1818. In Dublin it seems to have been most widely spread, if we judge from the number of admissions into the hospital, in September, 1818. In Cork, on the other hand,

the greatest number of admissions took place in July of the same year. In 1819, however, the disease appears, from an inspection of the general returns, to have been proportionally more fatal; which, we have no doubt, is to be ascribed to the nearer approach of the malady to the usual average of fever in Ireland: for the common fever of the country has been observed to be, in proportion to the numbers attacked, more destructive of life than the late epidemic. It is calculated, from a variety of documents, that out of six millions, the estimated population of Ireland, 800,000 persons sickened under this disease during the whole period of its prevalence: but that only 40,000 died, from the conjoined effects of famine, fever, and dysentery. Thus, with a population three times as large as in 1740, the sacrifice of human life was only half as great as during that and the succeeding year; which surely must be ascribed to the improved condition of the lower ranks in Ireland, and to the active and intelligent exertions which were made for the relief of the sufferers. Miserable and heart-rending as the details of the late epidemic are, it is still consoling to think that even Ireland, with all her misfortunes, is now considerably less at the mercy of those terrible scourges of the human race, famine and pestilence, than it formerly was.

We perceive, from an inspection of the numerous tables presented by Dr. Harty, that the number of females affected with the disease was greater than that of males; and that among the former the mortality was, on the whole, proportionally less. In Dublin, by far the greatest number of admissions took place in persons from the age of 10 to 20; and in Cork in those from 17 to 35: but it was uniformly observed that the disease was proportionally more fatal as the age of the patient was more advanced. Dr. Harty states the average rate of mortality of the registered sick at 1 in 25: but he considers the real mortality to have been 1 in 15; and Dr. Rogan's return gives this latter number, within a fraction. It is deserving of notice that, in the higher classes, the proportion of deaths was much greater, viz. 1 in 5, and sometimes 1 in 3. Several causes contributed to produce this striking and melancholy result: — the minds of such patients are more readily agitated, and more anxious about the result of the disease; — their constitutions are less hardy and elastic; — their habits of body are more plethoric, and therefore more favourable to local congestion and inflammation; — and, in all probability, the treatment to which they were subjected was of a more stimulant nature, for it is likely that they were more early and liberally supplied with wine and cordials.

According

According to the statement of Dr. Rogan, the mortality of the higher ranks in Strabane was 1 in 10; while in the lower it was only 1 in 20: but he asserts, in positive terms, that, when the poor received no medical aid, they died in the same proportion as the rich. We learn, however, from this gentleman, and we have it also from other authority, that a large number of the sick mendicants, accommodated by the wayside, under wigwams, recovered favourably; yet they appear to have had little or nothing during their sickness, except butter-milk or whey, and a supply of more nourishing food when they became convalescent. (Rogan, p. 85.)

This epidemic of Ireland was, like that of England during the same period, a true typhus, exhibiting in different individuals its usual diversities of character. Dr. Harty enters little into the subject of its treatment, but it is discussed at length by Dr. Rogan. Venesection, or even local abstraction of blood, was not much used by him, though he speaks favourably of both of these remedies. His chief dependence, however, appears to have been on purgative medicines. Stimulants he considers to have required great caution in their exhibition: but he bears decided evidence in proof of the astonishing recoveries, from situations apparently the most desperate, effected by the assiduous administration of wine and cordials.

Dr. R. also tells us that he made no inspections of fever-cases after death, and from motives the most honourable to his feelings. He knew the prejudices of the people, and he was unwilling to run the hazard of preventing them from having recourse to the hospital for relief. Dr. Mills, on the other hand, (the title of whose pamphlet we have also prefixed to this article,) has presented us with many such dissections, in fatal cases of the epidemic in Dublin; and in all of these he conceives that he found evident marks of inflammation, affecting either the brain or its meninges, or some other important viscus. That inflammation often exists, associated with typhus, we readily admit; and the ingenious publications of many recent writers, particularly Dr. Armstrong, have placed this fact in a clear and very useful point of view: but we cannot agree with Dr. Mills that 'fever is essentially the same, depending on local inflammation.' (P. 67.) In reference to the work of this latter gentleman on the effects of blood-letting in fever, (see M. R. vol. lxxiii. p. 308.) we should bring under the notice of our readers the document published by the physicians of the Cork-Street Fever Hospital, in contradiction of his views and statements. The conclusions which they draw are, 1st. "That, including all the patients placed under the care of Dr. Mills, at no period did

did he lose so small a proportion as a twenty-fifth. 3d. That the proportion of deaths to recoveries was in no inconsiderable proportion *greater* among the patients of Dr. Mills than among those of his colleagues, and was nearly that of one to eleven among his patients during his attendance. 3d. That no proof exists that recovery was rendered more speedy, or more perfect, by blood-letting." (Edinh. Med. Journ. vol. x. p. 363.) In these assertions, we conceive that the writers are perfectly borne out by the tables which they have published, drawn up from the diet-tables of the hospital.

A very large portion of the work of Dr. Harty is taken up with the consideration of the measures which were adopted for the purpose of putting a stop to the ravages of the epidemic; and the opinion which he wishes to inculcate is, that they were manifestly and deplorably imperfect and inefficient. We admit that the result proves the correctness of this statement; but we could wish that the author had shewn a little more indulgence to those who had to struggle against this desolating dispensation of Providence. With an indigent, unoccupied, swarming population, and a country suffering under dearth, over-run with vagrant mendicants, and deserted by its wealthiest proprietors, is it wonderful that the government of Ireland was unable to stay the scourge of pestilence? We should remember, also, that it furnished large funds from the public treasury for this object; and that 40,000 persons labouring under fever in Dublin were supported almost exclusively at the expence of government; only 1000*l.* having been subscribed by individuals for the support of the Cork Street Hospital. It must be allowed that a great error was committed by those who were charged with the measures of suppression, in having encouraged the removal of fever-patients from the country, within seven miles of Dublin, into the hospitals of that city; and in not having adopted more effectual means for purifying the clothing, bed-clothes, and habitations of the indigent sick. In the town of Strabane, an evil of frightful magnitude arose, in like manner, from the multitude of beggars who flocked into it, to receive assistance from the soup-kitchens, which were established during the scarcity by the benevolent liberality of its inhabitants. The conduct of that district, however, presents a brilliant contrast to the listlessness and apathy which seem to have prevailed among the inhabitants of Dublin and of Cork. It is in vain that we look to the government of a country for relief from such accumulated distresses, if an active public spirit, and a powerful individual benevolence, be not awakened among all classes of society. Dr. Harty asserts, and we perfectly con-

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cur in the opinion, that the epidemic in Dublin ceased of itself, and was not suppressed by any human means adopted for that purpose : but, in saying this, we do not mean to state that such measures were wholly and completely unavailing ; and we are sure that such an opinion was very remote from the mind of Dr. H.

The means by which Ireland is to be defended against the attacks of epidemic fever, in future, are to be found in all that can ameliorate the situation of that unfortunate country. Both Dr. Rogan and Dr. Harty, but especially the latter, have entered at considerable length into the subject ; and their statements and remarks reflect much honour on their feelings of patriotism and benevolence. To describe the wrongs and sufferings of that island, and to state how they are to be alleviated and removed, would occupy volumes ; and we must content ourselves with alluding to the principal of those particulars which, in our opinion, would effect the most immediate and powerful influence on the improvement and civilization of Ireland. Shall we be permitted to say that the details of internal government would admit of much reformation ; and that advantage would accrue from the abolition of petty sinecures, and the appointment to offices of those only who were qualified for them by talents, and rectitude of character ? Shall we be allowed to suggest that the established clergy of Ireland should be selected with care, from the most pious and laborious of their class ; that they should be capable of addressing their flocks in the native language of the country ; and that a strict and unceasing controul should be exercised over them by their ecclesiastical superiors ? The evils arising from the tythe-system have been so long felt and acknowledged, by men of all parties, that we deem it unnecessary to touch, in any manner, on this subject. To another topic, however, we cannot refrain from again adverting, viz. the multitude of strolling beggars in Ireland ; which, we conceive, calls loudly for an act for the apprehension of vagrants, and their confinement at laborious employment. It is obvious that this step must lead to the introduction of a system of poor-laws, which we venture to believe would do more for the relief of the lower classes in Ireland than all that has yet been done or attempted. We do not mean to say that the English poor-laws, in their present state, and carried into effect in the same careless indulgent manner, should be introduced into Ireland : but that a moderate provision should be made for the helpless indigent, and employment provided for those who are able to work : while a complete stop would be put to that vagrancy which has at all times proved destructive

structive of the morals of the lower ranks, and which, during the prevalence of epidemic fever, was the most efficient means of disseminating contagion. We have often heard it stated, and we have no reason to doubt the fact, that it is not unusual for many of the poor Irish peasantry, when the potatoes are once safely planted in their bits of ground, to fasten their cabin-doors, and set out on their mendicant excursions for the season. The establishment, by the poor, of a legal claim on their superiors for employment or support, would render the latter more careful of their interests, and do more for Ireland than all the taxes on absentees that ever were proposed. Another object, of incalculable importance to the improvement of the lower classes, is the suppression of illicit distillation and smuggling: but, whether this is to be effected by the increase of penal laws, and the presence of a powerful armed force, or by the licensing of small stills, and the reduction of the rate of excise, we leave to experience to determine. The former of these plans has long been tried, and with what little success few are ignorant: but we very much fear that the continuance of illicit distillation furnishes too important an aid in the payment of rents, to allow us to look for its speedy suppression.

Dr. Harty has strongly approved of Lord Carberry's proposal to abolish the 40s. freeholds, as leading to a minute subdivision of property that is highly injurious to the comforts and even the independence of the lower ranks. At present, perhaps, there is good ground for this opinion: but we are sanguine enough in our hopes to look forwards to the period, when the 40s. freeholders of Ireland will have risen above their present abject state; and when they will exert a more independent influence than they now do, in the election of their parliamentary representatives. Both Dr. Rogan and Dr. Harty are occasionally betrayed into some degree of extravagance, in their suggestions for increasing the civilization and comforts of the lower ranks of their countrymen. Thus the former of them proposes the establishment of public baths, yet Dr. H. states:

‘I have been informed, on unquestionable authority, that in many places where the magistrates conceived it their duty to prohibit the accumulation of manure in front of the cabins of the poor, and to carry it away when their prohibition was neglected, it was the custom of the poor, from the want of a back-door and yard, to collect the manure within their hovels, and even under their beds, and that a consequence which might be anticipated followed: fever of the most malignant type broke out amongst the wretched inmates, to check which the magistrates were compelled

pelled to withdraw their prohibition. According to my information this happened at Tuam, Clonmell, and Kilkenny.'

Are a people, of whom this fact can be related, yet arrived at a state of improvement sufficient to render it probable that public baths would be frequented for cleanliness by the poor? — Among other favourite projects of Dr. Harty for the relief of Ireland, are a Royal Lord Lieutenant, and the assembling of parliament in Dublin once in five or seven years.

Having thus allowed ourselves to be drawn into a lengthened discussion of the important subject of the Irish epidemic fever, we beg to conclude by expressing our approbation of both of the writers first named. The work of Dr. Harty contains a mass of important and well-digested information, with a collection of interesting public documents, which will render it a valuable book of reference in after-times: while that of Dr. Rogan is the production of a zealous and intelligent practitioner, unceasing in his benevolent exertions, and fertile in ingenious expedients for the relief of his suffering fellow-creatures.

ART. IX. *History of the Island of Newfoundland*; containing a Description of the Island, the Banks, the Fisheries, and the Trade of Newfoundland, and the Coast of Labrador, illustrated with two Maps. By the Rev. Lewis Amadeus Anspach, late a Magistrate of the Island, and Missionary for the District of Conception-Bay. 8vo. pp. 512. 16s. Boards. Allman, &c.

ST. JOHN'S and Placentia are the two principal settlements in Newfoundland; and in the year 1799 the plan was carried into execution of an establishment, at the former place, for the education of children of both sexes, on a liberal scale; an annual salary of 300*l.*, for three years certain, being offered to any clergyman of the church of England who was qualified and disposed to accept the situation. The '*Stranger*,' whose case is so forcibly argued and explained, from page 228. to 240. of the present volume, can be no other than Mr. Anspach himself, who accepted the offer: but who had no sooner preached his introductory sermon, and commenced his labours, unconnected *with the parties* of the place, than he was thwarted at every step which he took, and a base and fruitless attempt was made to get the instrument cancelled which secured his salary. Much to his own credit, and to the advantage of the town, he persevered in the conscientious discharge of his duty, till the expiration of the three years; when he repaired to the vacant mission of Conception-Bay, to which he was appointed by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts; with the additional office of
magistrate,

magistrate, from which he gradually rose to be Deputy-Governor and Judge of the Civil Court of Judicature, in the most populous and important district of the island.

A residence of thirteen years in Newfoundland led Mr. Anspach to inquire minutely into its circumstances, interests, history, and laws; and a collection of facts, selected from a variety of respectable sources, extracts from the records of the courts, and his own observations committed to a diary, have supplied the mass of materials which constitute the present volume. It contains a history of the island, from its accidental discovery by the "Northmen," to the year 1818. So far back as the year 1500, a considerable fishery, on the banks and shallows of Newfoundland, was carried on by the Portuguese, Biscayans, French, and other nations; and, more than fourscore years afterward, Sir Francis Drake took possession of the island, having captured the ships of Portugal, then subject to the crown of Spain, off that station, and brought them to England. From this time we seem to have *claimed* an exclusive right to this fishery, which had now attained a considerable degree of importance in the estimation of all the maritime nations of Europe; and it was so vigorously pursued in the early part of the reign of James I., that in the year 1615 upwards of 250 English vessels, carrying more than fifteen thousand tons, were employed on these coasts: but it was Charles I. to whom Newfoundland, and many of the British settlements in North America, were indebted for some of the most just and necessary colonial regulations. His commission of 1633, "for the well governing of his subjects inhabiting Newfoundland, or trafficking in bays, creeks, or fresh rivers there," is a document of considerable interest; being the first attempt to establish effectual restraints and rules for the protection of persons and property, and for the maintenance of good order. It was found, indeed, to contain so much practical wisdom, that it became the ground-work of all the laws and regulations which were adopted by the legislature under William, and by Colbert under Louis XIV.

During the war with France, at the accession of Anne, (1702,) we took possession of the French settlements on the island: but the importance of them was too great to suffer that possession to remain long undisputed; and, with various success, expeditions were fitted out, and contests excited, on the whole to the great declension of the British interests and trade, as expressed in a resolution of the House of Commons in 1707. It was not till the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, that Newfoundland and the adjacent islands were wholly ceded to Great Britain; the French being allowed to catch

catch fish, and dry them only on land, between Cape Bonavista on the north, and Point Riche on the west. This cession set at rest the contested claims respecting the property of the island itself, and put an end to the ruinous state of the English trade and fisheries there, which had been so long the subject of complaint. Still, however, the line of demarcation was so vaguely drawn, that it soon proved a fresh source of dispute, and remained unsettled till the close of the American war, when the limits were defined with more geographical precision. Every day the importance of the Newfoundland fishery, as a nursery for seamen, and a source of commerce, now became more and more obvious; an unequivocal acknowledgement of which, on the part of France, was made by the treaty of Paris in 1763; where, for the renewal and confirmation of that article in the treaty of Utrecht which related to her privilege of fishing, but which had, in course, ceased with the revival of hostilities in 1755, she made a voluntary unsolicited cession of the whole country of Canada. This was thought to be of great value to us at the time, both as an acquisition of territory and as a frontier for the security of our American colonies: but it is well observed by Mr. Anspach, that our colonies may be said to have obtained independence from that moment when their condition enabled them to assume it.

In the year 1763, the population of Newfoundland consisted of 13,112 individuals: 348,294 quintals of dried cod-fish were carried to market, 694 tierce of salmon, 1598 tons of train oil, and the fur taken by the inhabitants was valued at 2000*l*. In that year, also, 106 ships were qualified, according to the Act of William, for carrying on the fishery; and 123 sack-ships, that is, vessels coming to the island for the sole purpose of purchasing fish ready made. No mention was made of a *Seal*-fishery there: but it was thought that a whale and sea-cow fishery might be carried on in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and on the coast of Labrador.—Many important improvements in the administration of justice were introduced in the late reign; and the consequence was, that a much greater amount of capital was embarked by merchants. In 1795, the property employed, and the produce, were as follow:—400 sail of shipping, 38,000 tons at 7*l*.—500,000 quintals of dry fish at 18*s*.—3700 frails of salmon at 40*s*.—1000 batrels of herrings at 10*s*.—3300 tons of oil at 25*l*.—4900 seal-skins at 4*l*.—2000 shallops, boats, &c. &c. at 30*l*.; and sundry merchandise in store, valued at about 300,000*l*.; making an aggregate of nearly 1,200,000*l*. sterling.

In 1807, a printing-office was established in St. John's, and a weekly paper was published, for the first time, in that year.

In

In the following, regular post-offices in St. John's and the other principal districts were likewise formed. The commercial prosperity of the island was carried to its zenith during the last war; in a single year, it had exported one million two hundred thousand quintals of fish. When peace came, prosperity fled, and the infernal mischiefs of the war are attributed to the sudden and violent return of general commerce to a state of peace. Accustomed, by long possession, to be the sole suppliers of every market in Europe, the West Indies, and South America, the merchants now beheld the termination of the vast profits which they had annually derived from this trade; and they reduced to a proportionate scale the extent of their speculations in the amount of imports, particularly in provisions, which at that time were scarce and at a high price in the mother-country, as well as in the number of planters whom they undertook to supply. The harvest of 1817 was bad: the exportation was not more than 600,000 quintals of fish; and as early even as the month of April, the greatest possible distress existed in the island. The starving population, to use the expressive language of Mr. Anspach, had become lawless banditti; they broke open the merchants' stores, carried off their property by wholesale, seized the vessels which arrived with provisions, and set the police altogether at defiance. It was stated in the House of Commons, on this occasion, when the deplorable condition of the island was investigated, that Newfoundland employed yearly 800 vessels, and produced a revenue of 2,000,000*l.* in returns of various kinds; and that the population, exceeding eighty thousand inhabitants, were on the verge of famine. Successive fires in St. John's, so frequent and destructive, and attended with circumstances to excite the strongest suspicion of having been wilfully occasioned, completed the wretchedness and destitution of the people; many of whom retired to Nova Scotia, or to the out-harbours of Newfoundland, while others came over to Great Britain or Ireland.—The beginning of the year 1800 was remarkable for a frost of greater intensity than the oldest inhabitant could remember, and it lasted three months. The seal and cod fisheries, however, proved unusually successful, as they generally do after a severe winter: a favourable change in the commercial horizon was likewise felt at Newfoundland; and St. John's rose from its ashes with new and increased splendour.

At the close of the historical part of this work, a few chapters are devoted to miscellaneous subjects. A very good one is employed in describing the climate of Newfoundland, and the coast of Labrador; in which a comparison is instituted between

between it and the climate of North America, particularly of Canada. The various causes are also enumerated, which philosophers have assigned for the great difference of climates, under the same latitudes, in the new and old continents. Winter sets in about the middle of November, and terminates at the latter end of April; lasting till the islands and fields of ice, which periodically arrive from the northern regions, have been driven away by a northerly or north-westerly wind, strong enough to detach them. Sudden tempests frequently arise; the winds seeming to blow at once from all quarters, and driving about the snow with such fury, that the roads and ground are in a moment invisible, and the lower part of the houses are buried to the depth of several feet. — The following is a picturesque description of the *Aurora Borealis*.

‘In Europe, the dry freezing winds proceed from north to east: in North America they are from north to west. When these prevail, the sky is clear and of a dark blue, and the nights transcendently beautiful. The moon displays far greater radiance than in Europe; and, in her absence, her function is not ill supplied by the uncommon and fiery brightness of the stars. The *Aurora Borealis* frequently tinges the sky with coloured rays of such brilliancy, that their splendor, not effaced even by that of the full moon, is of the utmost magnificence, if the moon does not shine. Sometimes it begins in the form of a scarf, of bright light, with its extremities resting on the horizon, which, with a motion resembling that of a fishing-net, and a noise similar to the rustling of silk, glides softly up the sky, when the lights frequently unite in the zenith and form the top of a crown; at other times, the motion is like that of a pair of colours waving in the air, and the different tints of light present the appearance of so many vast streamers of changeable silk: or spreading into vast columns and altering slowly; or by rapid motions into an immense variety of shapes, varying its colours from all the tints of yellow to the most obscure russet; and after having briskly skimmed along the heavens, or majestically spread itself from the horizon to the zenith, on a sudden it disappears, leaving behind an uniform dusky tract: this is again illuminated, and in the same manner suddenly extinguished. Sometimes it begins with some insulated rays from the north and the north-east, which increase by degrees until they fill the whole sky, forming the most splendid sight that can be conceived, crackling, sparkling, hissing, and making a noise similar to that of artificial fire-works.

These phenomena, which are generally considered as the effects of electricity, are looked upon as the forerunners of storms; and when these arise from the north-east they spread the most horrid gloom over the island. Immense islands and fields of ice, brought down from the northern regions, fill up and freeze every bay and harbour, and block up the coast to the distance of several leagues into the ocean. The wind, blowing over this immense surface, is full of frozen fogs or frost smoke, arising from the ice,

in the shape of an infinite number of icy spiculæ, visible to the naked eye, penetrating into every pore and into the smallest apertures of the wooden houses, and rendering the exposure to the open air very disagreeable and even painful.

It is this ice which brings the Seals near the coast; and, as the fishery for them admits no delay, the crews are generally collected about the 17th of March, with hatchets, saws, poles, &c. They form two lines, separated by a space sufficient to allow the ships to pass between: each party cuts along the solid mass, and then transversely divides it into squares, which are shoved with poles *under* the solid ice, and thus a laborious passage is worked into the open sea. The coast is generally surrounded with ice, to the distance of several leagues, during the months of February, March, and April; and, from the description of these immeasurable masses, sometimes bursting with a tremendous explosion, and detaching huge fragments, which come in drifts so thick and rapid as to twist the ships about as in a whirlpool, we may credit the statement of Mr. Anspach, that the most formidable ramparts erected by military art, the dreadful cannonade of a besieged town, and the terrors of the most obstinate sea-fight, require less intrepidity and experience to encounter than these enormous floating bulwarks, and the united efforts of the elements, which these seas at that time oppose to the mariner. Such are the perils which the seal-fishery presents; and a very full description of it and of the cod-fishery, comprehending the mode of curing, salting, drying, &c. &c. is given in one of the chapters. The last delineates the character and manners of the aborigines, and other inhabitants of the island.—The maps, which were drawn and engraved expressly for the work, are on a large scale, executed with great neatness, and, it is to be presumed, with accuracy.

ART. X. *A Letter to Earl Bathurst, Secretary of State for the Colonial Department, on the Condition of the Colonies in New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land, as set forth in the Evidence taken before the Prison-Committee in 1819.* By the Honourable H. Grey Bennet, M. P. 8vo. pp. 143. 5s. Ridgway. 1820.

ART. XI. *A Letter to the Rt. Hon. Viscount Sidmouth, in Refutation of Statements made by the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet, M. P., in a Pamphlet "On the Transportation Laws, the State of the Hulks, and of the Colonies in New South Wales."* By Lachlan Macquarie, Major-General, and Governor-in-Chief of New South Wales. 8vo. pp. 95. 2s. 6d. R. Rees. 1821.

THE first of these tracts is dated June 1st, 1820, and may be considered as a continuation of the same author's "Letter to Lord Sidmouth, noticed in our Number for March, 1819.

(Vol.

(Vol. lxxxviii. p. 295.) Governor Macquarie's *Letter* may be regarded as an answer to both, although it professes to reply only to the first, and bears the date of January 31. 1820: — ample time having intervened between the *date* of Mr. Bennet's second letter and the *publication* of that of General Macquarie, which did not take place till February, 1821, (a year after its date,) for the Governor to have been informed of its contents; and his friends in London evidently shewing that they consider it as a refutation of the charges in both, by bringing it before the public six months after the appearance of the latter, and at so short a period before the writer's expected return to England.

Having discussed at considerable length, in the article above mentioned, the principal points connected with the transportation-laws, we shall confine our present observations to those parts of the subject which we before omitted: following the arrangement of Mr. Bennet, as being more clear than that of Governor Macquarie.

Section I. treats on the *Authority of the Governor, and the way in which it is exercised.* — Mr. Bennet contends that the power vested in the Governor is too extensive, considering the present state of the colony, and the profession of the persons to whom that power is in general delegated; and that Governor Macquarie and his predecessors have exercised their authority very indiscreetly, in many instances exceeding it, and even breaking the laws of England. The simple remedy for all this seems to be to adopt the recommendation made by the Committee of the House of Commons in 1812; viz. "that a council be given to the Governor;" — a recommendation which the Ministry did not deem it expedient to adopt for the following reasons: "The difficulty of selecting proper persons for the situation of members of the council; the dissensions and disputes to which their opposition to the Governor or their protest against his conduct must give rise; the parties which would thence arise in the colony; the length of time during which the public tranquillity would be interrupted, before a communication could be received at home; and the danger of weakening the higher authorities in a society composed of such discordant materials." The question is undoubtedly difficult; and these arguments would not only have great weight but be unanswerable, did not the colony contain so great a proportion of free settlers.

'What is to become of the settlement?' says Mr. Bennet, 'is it to be a gaol or a colony? If a gaol, you must bring back again to Europe all the free settlers: — if a colony, in order to maintain those who are already there in a flourishing condition,

condition, as well as to induce persons of character and property to settle within its territories, a rational, limited, legal government must be established. Martial law may be a fit mode of government for felon-convicts; but free settlers will be ruled by nothing short of a system of civil liberty.'

Among the cases in which a council would be beneficial, is the appointment of Magistrates, because the nomination of unfit persons and the removal of useful individuals would then be restrained:—instances of both these improprieties having formed a strong ground of complaint against the Governor. On no point should a man who is invested with unlimited power be more cautious, than with regard to the selection which he makes for the administration of justice. Whatever arguments may be urged in favour of placing convicts in other situations of activity and trust, they can have no weight in justifying the selection of them for magistrates; although they may have redeemed their former disgrace by their recent good conduct. The character of a Judge should not only be above suspicion but beyond the reach of scandal: for the motives of even the most virtuous magistrate will be impugned by those who think that they are sufferers by his decrees, and in every case one party is likely to be in that situation. It is only by his general credit and uniform good character, therefore, that these complaints are silenced; and surely, then, a man who has been forced to reside in the settlement, as a punishment for a breach of the laws of his country, cannot be a proper administrator of those laws, or a fit representative of his sovereign. In matters of a *civil* nature, may not a free settler, with some appearance of reason, doubt the justice of his decisions?—and in *penal* cases is he not liable to the taunts and insults of those whom he is condemning? We know nothing of the individuals named in these pamphlets as having been elevated to the magistracy; they may or may not have been proper objects of the favour of the Governor; and we are willing to allow that he is the best judge of their merits. All that we maintain is this, that, supposing them to be worthy, some other mode of reward should have been adopted, both for the credit of the administration of justice, and, indeed, for the comfort and happiness of the parties selected; whose crimes and whose punishment might be forgotten while in a private situation, but the remembrance of which would be revived on their elevation, with all the exaggerated embellishments of envy and discontent.

The arguments against permitting transported persons to act as Attorneys in the courts are equally strong, and equally palpable. A practising lawyer is either a benefit or a curse

to

to society, according to the principles which actuate his conduct. The nature of his employment, requiring as it does the most perfect confidence, necessarily gives almost unlimited power; and, leading into daily temptation, it demands the strictest honour. Solicitors who have been transported have generally suffered that punishment for notorious misconduct in the courts at home, for which they have not the ordinary plea of ignorance to excuse them; and are these persons fit objects for admission into the practice of the colonial courts? Are they more likely there than in England to do justice to their clients, or to refrain from taking unprincipled advantages of their situation?

We can see no valid reason for appointing individuals, who have been convicts, to the situations of Magistrates and Attorneys, except the unanswerable plea of necessity: but that argument is not here available, unless it can be shewn that the free settlers could furnish none who were, or who could be made, equal to the duties required in the offices in question; — and such an exclusion of all talent and respectability from them is not attempted. We concur, therefore, in the complaint of Mr. Justice Bent:

“ I could scarcely have expected that Governor Macquarie would have felt it right to interfere at all as to the persons to be admitted attorneys in the courts of justice; and I still less expected that Governor Macquarie should express a decided opinion that such persons as George Crossley and Edward Eagar should be recommended, and that he would, as Governor-in-Chief over this colony, write an official recommendation of them to the Supreme Court.”

It is not our intention to discuss or to quote the instances in which the Governor is charged with having acted contrary to law; nor shall we notice his Excellency's defence on that point: a critical tribunal not having jurisdiction over a case of this nature.

The next subject is the *Courts of Law*; of which there are five in New South Wales, and one at Hobart Town, in Van Dieman's Land. — With regard to these our remarks shall be short. The *Criminal Court* in New South Wales appears to have too much of the air of a Court-Martial; — being composed of the Judge-advocate, and six military officers chosen by roster from the regiment on duty. In the infancy of this colony such a jurisdiction might have been necessary: but, now that the free settlers form so large a proportion of the population, a more constitutional and less objectionable mode of trial might surely be adopted. The habits of soldiers are not the best preparation for the office of a judge in civil

causes; the world will not give them credit for such powers of discrimination as they perhaps possess; and, where penal laws are to be administered, even the prejudices of mankind should not be unnecessarily outraged.

The Governor's Court, where the Judge-Advocate presides, assisted by two merchants of the town of Sydney, and the *Supreme Court*, consisting of a separate judge and two magistrates named by the Governor, have a civil jurisdiction, the first over all pleas to the amount of 50*l.* and no more, and the second over all pleas above 50*l.* — We do not see much weight in the objection which Mr. Bennet founds on this limitation; the inconvenience can at all events be but slight and infrequent; and we find in England the same principle not only recognized, but producing the best effects in practice. Both courts meet four times in a year: from that of the Governor no appeal can be made, but from the Supreme Court an appeal lies to the *High Court of Appeal*, consisting of the Governor and Judge-Advocate, in all pleas under 3000*l.*, and their decision is final: — in causes above that sum, the appeal is to the King in council. The remaining court in New South Wales is the *Court of Admiralty*, which has never been held.

The court in Van Dieman's Land is called the *Lieutenant-Governor's Court*, at which a deputy Judge-Advocate presides, assisted by two inhabitants; it is only for *civil* suits, there being *no criminal jurisdiction whatever* in that settlement. The following observations on this fact deserve serious attention, as given in evidence before the Gaol-Committee:

“ To that circumstance is very considerably attributable the great proportion of offences which take place there, which are much more numerous than in the same amount of population in New South Wales. The inhabitants will suffer almost any crime short of murder to pass without prosecution, rather than endure the inconvenience of leaving their homes at the probable risk of ruin, and taking a voyage with their documents and witnesses to Port Jackson (a distance of six hundred miles): this is a material inducement to the prisoners to commit offences, under a hope that they will not be prosecuted, and if they are so, the chances are in favour that they will escape conviction.” It has occurred, in numerous instances, that persons who were known to have committed the greatest atrocities in Van Dieman's Land, have been brought to Sydney for trial, and owing to a deficiency of witnesses have escaped.

Had not this representation appeared in such an unquestionable shape, we could scarcely have believed it.

We

We refer our readers to a recent article on the delightful but neglected country of Van Dieman's land*; and shall conclude our observations on this subject by the following spirited extract from Mr. Bennet's letter with relation to it:

'No one can be surprized at the number and enormity of the crimes which were committed. The wonder is, that the whole race has not been destroyed by their hideous vices and enormities; and yet to this very settlement, children just emerging from infancy, — convicts for their first offences, — transported for seven years, are sent without compunction; and the only difference between those transported here, and to New South Wales, is, that those who are believed to possess habits of industry, or the means of gaining their bread as artisans or labourers, are detained at Sidney, while only the refuse, the vile, the idle, and the worthless, are transferred to Van Dieman's Land. The practice, heretofore, has been to charter all the vessels to Sydney, leaving to the Governor of New South Wales the choice of the convicts he would detain at that settlement, or send on to Van Dieman's Land. I should recommend, for the future, that the transports for each colony, both of male and female, should be selected at home; and that the ships should proceed to their respective destinations. By these means, the fine and beautiful settlement of Van Dieman's Land may have some chance of obtaining convicts of another class, than town-thieves and London pick-pockets.'

Police is the next head of Mr. Bennet's division; and the power of the magistrates and the appointment of the constables, form the subject of his remarks. We have not room to pursue his observations, but we trust that the new governor will more clearly define the one and regulate the other; and that he will especially alter the very reprehensible system of paying public service by convict-labour, which is fraught with many serious evils, as well as repugnant to the simplest principles of justice and humanity.

To the *moral condition* of so heterogeneous a population, little satisfactory testimony can be expected, where so great a disproportion of the sexes prevails as seven men to one woman convict; and where such a perpetual tendency to retrograde, if amendment has commenced, must be caused by the frequency of new importations of the worst order of society. Some of the errors of the system with regard to female-convicts are forcibly pointed out by Mr. Bennet; and the exposition must surely have its good effect, and quicken the efforts towards that improvement which, while it is the *duty*, we are inclined to hope and believe is the *wish*, of those in whose department the arrangements are placed.

* See our Number for March last, p. 333.

Mr. Bennet reiterates the opinions expressed in his former letter on the inadequacy of transportation to its proposed end, — punishment and reform. Our concurrence in those conceptions has been already expressed; and we may safely predict that the time is not far distant when many of Mr. B.'s liberal views, with regard both to this idea and the peopling of New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land, will receive the attention which they merit: for we trust that the jealousy, with which a suggestion from an anti-ministerial member has been too usually received, will subside in the desire of promoting general improvement, and meliorating the condition of so important a colony. — The style, however, of Governor Macquarie's pamphlet is not the most likely to produce this desirable effect; for it exhibits a harsh mode of expression, when speaking of Mr. Bennet, which that gentleman's disinterested exertions, and indeed his manner of treating the Governor, did not deserve. We fear that this officer is not a patient listener to complaints; all parties, who utter a word contrary to his preconceived opinions, being treated by him with equal superciliousness. In speaking of two gentlemen of clerical and legal rank in the colony, he uses these words: "The Rev. Mr. Marsden, Mr. Justice Bent, and a few *other* factious discontented men of lower rank in the colony." We think that a Governor ought to set the example of decency at least.

ART. XII. *Metrical Legends of exalted Characters*. By Joanna Baillie, Author of *Plays on the Passions*, &c. 8vo. pp. 373. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

ALTHOUGH the world is becoming every day more emancipated from the undue authority of great names,—and although in some instances it has even betrayed an ungenerous want of respect for established reputation,—yet, in the paths of literature, a propensity still prevails to hallow the faults and errors of genius; and the judicious spirit of selection is still kept too much in controul, by wholesale and indiscriminate panegyric from the multitude. Since, therefore, it holds good in criticism, (however false it may be in politics,) that we *promote* what we *tolerate*, it is the duty of every sensible reader to dare to censure, with modesty but with firmness, that which he feels to be wrong either in the morals or the taste of even the most popular compositions. Who can doubt that the vicious indulgence of their contemporaries prolonged and enlarged those blots, which disfigure the brightest efforts of our

our ancestors, even in the best æras of our literature? We trust that we need hardly say, it is far from a captious or narrow disposition to object which we would encourage; and that it is a cautious but conscientious denunciation of what is *decidedly faulty*, even in the noblest authors, that we recommend to all who are able to judge, and willing to save the literature of their country from its deepening degradation.

To go no farther back than the days of Charles II., what reasonable person can hesitate to assign the corrupted morals and taste of his court, (and at that time, by consequence, of the nation,) as the one paramount cause for the disgrace of genius, the indelible stains on one of the most brilliant pages of our literary history? Without pursuing the argument through its regular deduction, we would come at once to our own times; and, though by no means directing the same sort or degree of censure against our distinguished contemporaries as against the writers of that former period, we would here also ask whether it be not “the wondering with a foolish face of praise,”—the almost universal chorus of empty applause with which some of our first poets have been welcomed,—and the injudicious and unworthy reception of their idlest compositions,—which has prevented them from rising to that height to which approbation, tempered with well-founded blame, might have inspired them to ascend? Has not such a silly welcome of adulation, (for that is its true name,) by the majority of readers, rendered all the well-directed shafts of criticism of no effect; encouraged and increased the studied wildness, and principled irregularity, of the founder of the *metrical* or *unmetrical romance*; and led the great master of the *moral* or *immoral descriptive* into such labyrinths of metaphysical extravagance, that “panting” sense “toils after him in vain?” If it be answered that none but critics by profession can presume to censure such distinguished authors, (an answer often made by very suspicious pretenders to the first honours of modesty,) we would reply by asking, “Do you not think it is more daring to admire the *whole* of these authors, than to point out to the best of your judgment, without arrogance, and on a proper occasion, some particular faults?” In fact, this pretence of *never* presuming to censure, if it be not the refuge of indolence, is often the apparent criterion of affectation, and can impose on none but the shallowest observers of the human character.

We have deemed it incumbent on us to prefix these introductory remarks to an article, in which it will be our unwelcome but unavoidable duty to mix considerable censure with our commendation of that popular and most meritorious writer,

writer, the celebrated authoress of *De Montfort*. We shall endeavour to put our readers in possession of Miss Baillie's present design in her own words; we shall render all the justice that we can to the execution of the work, by ample selections from the best portions of it; and we shall reluctantly intersperse some of those instances of failure which occur to us, with general remarks on the whole publication as calculated to affect the interests of a pure poetical taste in England.

In different parts of her *préface*, Miss Baillie informs us that, in calling the present compositions '*Metrical Legends*,' she does not 'use the term as denoting fictitious stories, but as chronicles or memorials;' and that the general impression made by the perusal of history is often deficient in one material point; namely, in conveying a distinct idea of all that great men have really performed: while, on the other hand, biography supplies the defect by so full a detail of circumstances, as often to do 'the same injury to the departed great, as familiar acquaintance still oftener does to the living.' The ingenious writer continues to remark that

'Romance, in verse and in prose, has, and often successfully, attempted to supply those deficiencies, by adding abundance of fictitious circumstances to the traces of history and biography — a task pleasing to the writer and the reader. But in her zeal to display the abstract perfections of a hero, she has not rested satisfied with additions; she has boldly and unwarrantably made use of absolute contradictions to those traces, even when generally known and well authenticated. This is the greatest injury to the *Mighty Dead*. It is throwing over the venerated form of a majestic man, a gauzy veil, on which is delineated the fanciful figure of an angel. If time has removed that form to such a distance, that a faint outline only can be perceived, let us still behold the outline unshaded and unchanged. "Disturb not the ashes of the dead," is a sentiment acknowledged and obeyed by every feeling mind; but to disturb those memorials of worth — those shadowings of the soul — what may be called their intellectual remains, — is by far the greater sacrifice.

'My reader must not, however, suppose that I would debar romance from the use of every real name, and oblige her to people her stories entirely with beings fictitious both in name and character. This would be too rigid. Where history is so obscure or remote, that we know little of a hero but his name, the romance writer may seize it as lawful spoil; for he cannot thereby confuse our ideas of truth and falsehood, or change and deform what has no form. It is only when a character known, though imperfectly, is wrested from the events with which it was really connected, and overlaid at the same time with fanciful attributes, that this can be justly complained of.

'Having this view of the subject in my mind, and a great desire,

sire, notwithstanding, to pay some tribute to the memory of a few characters for whom I felt a peculiar admiration and respect, I have ventured upon what may be considered, in some degree, as a new attempt, — to give a short descriptive chronicle of those noble beings, whose existence has honoured human nature and benefited mankind.

We are quite aware that in this brief quotation from Miss Baillie's preface, omitting (as we must) her subsequent happy illustrations of her own doctrine, we shall convey but imperfect specimens of a very luminous and original train of speculation, expressed with as much unconscious simplicity as perspicuous elegance. We have transcribed enough, however, to throw a light on the poet's design, that will enable the reader to appreciate the subjoined passages, and to understand our remarks on them.

‘ WILLIAM WALLACE.

‘ Insensible to high heroic deeds,
Is there a spirit clothed in mortal weeds,
Who at the Patriot's moving story,
Devoted to his country's good,
Devoted to his country's glory,
Shedding for freemen's rights his generous blood; —
List neth not with breath heaved high,
Quiv'ring nerve, and glistening eye,
Feeling within a spark of heavenly flame,
That with the hero's worth may humble kindred claim?
If such there be, still let him plod
On the dull foggy paths of care,
Nor raise his eyes from the dank sod
To view creation fair:
What boots to him the wond'rous works of God?
His soul with brutal things hath ta'en its earthy lair.

‘ Come, youths, whose eyes are forward cast,
And in the future see the past, —
The past, as winnow'd in the early mind
With husk and prickle left behind!
Come; whether under lowland vest,
Or, by the mountain-tartan prest,
Your gen'rous bosoms heave:
Pausing a while in thoughtful rest,
My legend lay receive.
Come, aged sires, who love to tell
What fields were fought, what deeds were done;
What things in olden times befell, —
Those good old times, whose term is run!
Come ye, whose manly strength with pride
Is breasting now the present tide
Of worldly strife, and cast aside

A hasty

A hasty glance at what hath been !
 Come, courtly dames, in silken sheen,
 And ye, who under thatched roofs abide ;
 Yea, ev'n the barefoot child by cottage fire,
 Who doth some shreds of northern lore acquire,
 By the stirr'd embers' scanty light, —
 List to my legend lay of Wallace wight.'

Miss Baillie has made a full acknowledgement of minor obligations to Sir Walter Scott in her preface : but too much of thought and feeling, as well as of style and manner, is surely borrowed in the passage which we have just quoted, from a particular part of the "Lay of the last Minstrel :"

"Breathes there the man with soul so dead," &c. &c.

It is a higher and a nobler instrument of poetical music which Joanna Baillie is qualified to strike. She seems to us *condescending* from the due station of her genius, when in company with Sir Walter Scott she walks down into the regions of octosyllabic verse, and quits her early manner of treating heroic subjects in heroic strains. If we feel this even in the animated and comparatively exalted verses just offered to our readers, what must be the humiliation of the daughter of the tragic Muse, of the only genuine offspring of Melpomene in our degenerate days, when she stoops (alas ! *not* "to conquer !") even unto the "base string" of the subjoined "humility."

'Lenox, Douglas, Campbell, Hay,
 Boyd, Scrimger, Ruthven, Haliday,
 Gordon, Crawford, Keith, were there ;
 Lauder, Lundy, Cleland, Kerr,
 Steven, Ireland's vagrant lord ;
 Newbiggen, Fraser, Rutherford,
 Dundas and Tinto, Currie, Scott ;
 Nor be in this brave list forgot
 A Wallace of the hero's blood,
 With many patriots staunch and good ;
 And first, though latest nam'd there came,
 Within his gen'rous breast to hold
 A brother's place, — true war-mate bold !
 The good, the gallant Grame.'

We shall not allow the *sparing* and *occasional* practice of antiquity, the

"Γλαυκοντε, Μεδοντατε, Θερσιλοχοντε,"

to justify the above. Still less can the picturesque catalogue of the Ships, or any of the Virgilian imitations of Homer, be alleged in defence. *More* poetry is thrown in among the

the names by the antients; more leaven, to leaven the mass. A mere list, like the above, is unworthy of any thing but a *prose-chronicler*; and blind Harry himself would have heard it recited with some degree of poetical irritation.

Again,

‘ Edward, meantime, ashamed and wroth
At such unseemly foil, and loth
So to be bearded, sent defiance
To Scotland's chief, in sure reliance
That he, with all which he may southward bring,
Of warlike force, dared not encounter England's King.’

It would be easy to multiply such little bits of prose, such fragments of flat biography, from the work before us: but enough has been said, and shewn, to prove how utterly unworthy such passages are both of the subject and the writer, — both of William Wallace and of Joanna Baillie.

We must now advance to the same mixed task, with regard to the legend of ‘Columbus;’ premising that much indeed remains in ‘Wallace’ of most unexceptionable merit. The following noble tribute to the unrivalled genius of Columbus first arrests our attention, and we quote it with sincere satisfaction. It relates to the moment of his departure from Spain.

‘ On Palos' shore, whose crowded strand
Bore priests and nobles of the land,
And rustic hinds and townsmen trim,
And harness'd soldiers stern and grim,
And lowly maids and dames of pride,
And infants by their mothers' side, —
The boldest seaman stood that e'er
Did bark or ship through tempest steer;
And wise as bold, and good as wise;
The magnet of a thousand eyes,
That on his form and features cast,
His noble mien and simple guise,
In wonder seem'd to look their last.
A form which conscious worth is gracing,
A face where hope, the lines effacing
Of thought and care, bestow'd, in truth,
To the quick eye's imperfect tracing
The look and air of youth.

‘ Who in his lofty gait, and high
Expression of th' enlighten'd eye,
Had recognised in that bright hour
The disappointed suppliant of dull power,
Who had in vain of states and kings desired
The pittance for his vast emprise required? —
The patient sage, who, by his lamp's faint light,
O'er chart and map spent the long silent night? —

The

The man who meekly fortune's buffets bore,
Trusting in One alone, whom heaven and earth adore?

- ' Another world is in his mind,
Peopled with creatures of his kind,
With hearts to feel, with minds to soar,
Thoughts to consider and explore;
Souls, who might find, from trespass shriven,
Virtue on earth and joy in heaven,
" That Power divine, whom storms obey,"
(Whisper'd his heart,) a leading star,
Will guide him on his blessed way!
Brothers to join by fate divided far.
Vain thoughts! which heaven doth but ordain
In part to be, the rest, alas! how vain!
- ' But hath there lived of mortal mould,
Whose fortunes with his thoughts could hold
An even race? Earth's greatest son
That e'er earn'd fame or empire won,
Hath but fulfill'd, within a narrow scope,
A stinted portion of his ample hope.'

Undoubtedly we could select from this last legend enough to justify our general disapprobation of Miss Baillie's plan, which attempts impossibilities: for it endeavours to reconcile the *literal* record of any portion *even of heroic* story with *poetical* effect; to rob from *prose*, in a word, its own character of impressive simplicity, its own *implicit truth*; and to gain the effect, without paying the tax, of the essential decorations of verse. The amplification of this train of thought, the full developement of it, perhaps, would lead us far beyond our present time or space: but enough, probably, has been thrown out to awaken reflections (in those who are capable of reflecting and disposed to reflect on such subjects) which will utterly destroy the very name of poetry, considered as a *whole*, in any one of these compositions. We can experience no continuity of ideal charm, no sustained delight of the imagination, when we are so frequently recalled to news-paper-details in verse; to the "*Gazette's tale*," without its pomp. In eager justice to 'Columbus,' however, we hasten to place the legend that bears his name far above its predecessor, in uniformity of poetical inspiration; and with some few depressing exceptions, we are well pleased with the execution of this story. We decline to record those exceptions.

The most pleasing tale in the book is the legend of 'Lady Griseld Baillie;' who married into 'a family of my own name, (says Miss Baillie,) and from which it is supposed my forefathers

forefathers took their descent.' — Lady Griseld was the daughter of Sir Patrick Hume, in whose adventures the late Mr. Rose so largely interested us in his answer to Fox's History of James II.; and the manner in which Miss Baillie has related the extraordinary and most touching instances of filial affection, in this her family-heroine, does infinite credit to her heart as well as to her poetical genius. — Although a domestic subject, in the general character of the story, it is rendered susceptible of the most elegant poetry in many parts of it by the exquisite tact of the writer; and, where she fails in *verse*, she remains an interesting *prose*-narrator of singular events: but, in our panegyric, we here intend to mingle no slight reprehension, when we call the fair author a *prose*-narrator of any thing which she intends to be *verse*. For example:

' "No; from the Redbraes' tower I come;
My father is Sir Patrick Hume;
And he has sent me for thy good,
His dearly honour'd Jerviswood.
Long have I round these walls been straying,
As if with other children playing;
Long near the gate have kept my watch
The sentry's changing time to catch.
With stealthy steps I gain'd the shade
By the close-winding staircase made,
And when the surly turnkey enter'd,
But little dreaming in his mind
Who follow'd him so close behind,
Into this darken'd cell, with beating heart, I ventured."

There is no *poetical* verisimilitude in this. It might have been related *in prose* that a child said so and so: but when she is represented *in verse*, telling us that she was

' *As if* with other children playing' —

&c. &c.

"*Risum teneatis, amici?*"

Indeed it is impossible to avoid the recollection of the ballad of our youth,

"My granny lives in yonder wood,
And I am small Red-Riding Hood!"

This is the curse of Ballad Poetry. It is *all* so indissolubly connected.

No ridicule can destroy, nor can any ridicule be intended by us to destroy, the beautiful effect of a devoted female character, as drawn in the tale before us. We shall now quote

quote some lines which are to us most delightful, for they present an endearing image of affection, sense, and virtue, in the fairest and best portion of our nature: but we must first present Lady Griseld as a wife, and then return to her filial character, even in age:

' Their long-tried faith in honour plighted,
They were a pair by Heaven united,
Whose wedded love, thro' lengthen'd years,
The trace of early fondness wears.
Her heart first guessed his doubtful choice,
Her ear first caught his distant voice,
And from afar, her wistful eye
Would first his graceful form descry.
Ev'n when he hied him forth to meet
The open air in lawn or street,
She to her casement went,
And after him, with smile so sweet,
Her look of blessing sent.
The heart's affection, — secret thing!
Is like the cleft rock's ceaseless spring,
Which free and independent flows
Of summer rains or winter snows.
The fox-glove from its side may fall,
The heath-bloom fade or moss-flower white,
But still its runlet, bright tho' small,
Will issue sweetly to the light.

' How long an honour'd and a happy pair,
They held their seemly state in mansion fair,
I will not here in chiming verses say,
To tire my reader with a lengthen'd lay;
For tranquil bliss is as a summer day
O'er broad Savanna shining; fair it lies,
And rich the trackless scene, but soon our eyes,
In search of meaner things, turn heavily away.'

Does not Miss Baillie, in a couplet of the above quotation, justify our censure of her design in this work? When she writes

' I will not here in *chiming verses* say,
To tire my reader with a lengthen'd lay,'

does she not describe too much of her own legend of Wallace; some portion of Columbus, although considerably less; and even a scattered fragment or two of her Lady Griseld Baillie? For example:

' But said I *all the family*?* No:
Word incorrect! it was not so.' (P. 230.)

* This word is altered to *children* in a subsequent edition.

Although Mr. Crabbe, and all his degenerate critics, were to vow together on the altar of Nonsense that *this* is verse, we would not believe them. Mr. Wordsworth's corroborating asseveration would also be cast in without effect.

We conclude with Lady Griseld as a daughter, and make our most courteous bow to the distinguished authoress whose work we have been examining; assuring her that, whatever unwelcome remarks our duty may have inflicted on her 'Metrical Legends,' she has few more firm and decided admirers than ourselves.

' But no new ties of wedded life,
That bind the mother and the wife,
Her tender, filial heart could change,
Or from its earliest friends estrange.
The child, by strong affection led,
Who brav'd her terror of the dead
To save an outlaw'd parent, still
In age was subject to his will.
She then was seen with matron air,
A dame of years, with count'nance fair,
Tho' faded, sitting by his easy chair:
A sight that might the heart's best feelings move!
Behold her seated at her task of love!
Books, papers, pencil, pen, and slate,
And column'd scrolls of ancient date,
Before her lie, on which she looks
With searching glance, and gladly brooks
An irksome task, that else might vex
His temper, or his brain perplex:
While, happily, on the matted floor,
Close nestling at her kirtled feet,
Its lap enrich'd with childish store,
Sits, hush'd and still, a grandchild sweet,
Who looks at times with eye intent,
Full on its grandame's parent bent,
Viewing his deeply-furrowed brow,
And sunken lip and locks of snow,
In serious wonderment.
Well said that grateful sire, I ween!
Still thro' life's many a varied scene,
Griseld our dear and helpful child hath been.'

ART. XIII. *Notes on Rio de Janeiro*, and the Southern Parts of Brazil, taken during a Residence of Ten Years in that Country, from 1808 to 1818. By John Luccock. 4to. pp. 640. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Leigh. 1820.

WE presented our readers with an account of Koster's Travels in Brazil, in our lxxxviith volume, p. 122.: they described the northern portions of that empire, and Mr. Luccock

cock here delineates the southern. Both works display extensive peregrination, both contain important practical facts, and, united, they in a great degree complete the geography of that vast, interesting, and thriving country. Mr. Luccock has this advantage over his predecessor, that he visits the more beautiful and flourishing provinces, sojourns in the metropolis, paints the manners of the court, and beholds the whole scene in a stage of higher improvement. His attention, also, is more variously directed, more versatile, more rapid; and, if he displays less of the author by profession, he amply atones for some want of scientific and historic knowledge by a very useful sort of minuteness in commercial and nautical concerns. The order of time has mostly been followed in chronicling the various remarks: but, as some of the places were visited by him more than once, it was occasionally and justly deemed better to throw into one mass the information collected concerning them, than to give the entire tour in all its repetitions. Maps are attached, constructed from materials obtained in different parts of the country; and, compared with Casal's Brazilian Geography, they possess the obvious merit of being free from that strange mixture of Portuguese, Spanish, Tupi, French; and Dutch names, with which most European maps of South America are macaronically diversified.

The first chapter describes the author's voyage across the Atlantic, with a judicious neglect of trifling particulars, and a laudable attention to objects of curiosity in natural history. At page 27. the phænomenon is noticed that, in the southern hemisphere, near the nebulae named among astronomers the Magellanic clouds, are two black patches, much larger than the nebulae themselves. They are so black as to be distinctly visible by every person; which naturally prompts the question, how is it that in these parts of the heavens there should always be such an obvious and well-defined absence of light? Some of a similar kind, but of smaller extent, and various in their degree of blackness, exist in the southern half of the *Via Lactea*.—Mr. L. adverts to many occurrences respecting different fishes, and sea-birds, and most commendably censures the cruelty of those who shoot at the latter from mere wantonness.

Chapter ii. is allotted to Rio Janeiro: it describes Cape Frio, the rich and beautiful views which surround it, the bay of Rio, the city, the streets, the houses, the *jalousies*, or window-blinds, the rapid extension of the town, its population, provisions, climate, and salubrity. In the next section, the author gives an account of the public buildings and institutions,

tions, the cathedral, the churches, the baptismal and funereal ceremonies, the street-worship, the convents, colleges, hospitals, bishop's palace, custom-house, public wharfs, fountains, aqueduct, theatre, public gardens, and prisons. A sketch of the military condition of the place is also inserted.—He next treats of the various ranks and classes of society, with the employments, manners, and character of the people. The figure made by the royal family is somewhat ridiculously pictured. Having stated the moderate qualities and appearance of their *palace*, he adds;

‘ If the residence of royalty was humble, its equipage and attendants, when it appeared in public, were still more so. The best vehicle which the rich colony of Brazil could afford to its sovereign was a small chaise, brought out by the same vessel in which the Queen arrived. It was drawn by two very ordinary mules, and driven by a servant in an old and discoloured, if not tattered livery. She was attended, in her rides, by a maid of honour, in the same carriage with herself, two soldiers in advance, and an officer and twelve others following, a single trumpet and a private footman. The military were wretchedly mounted and appointed; their horses were unshod, and most of them lame, blind, galled, or otherwise disabled; the clothing of the men was, generally speaking, blue, but displayed all the shades of that various and varying colour. Their jackets were much worn and patched, they had no waistcoats, nor gloves, nor stockings, their boots old and torn, never blacked nor even brushed. The helmets and cartouch-boxes were such as must have been long out of use in Portugal, as well as every other part of Europe: the belts made of cotton-cloth, and as much unacquainted with a brush as were the boots. The swords of so small a party were not uniform, though every man had one; but several of them were without carbines, and supplied the want, some with one, some with two old ill-constructed pistols. Their faces and hands were perfectly guiltless of any consumption of so rare an article as soap, or of so common a one as water. The furniture of the horses was just of a piece with the dress and equipments of their riders; the bridles, in many cases, rendered useful by having their broken parts tied together by a strip of raw hide; which was then universally used in the colony instead of hempen string; the bits and stirrups, like the men's spurs, had not been scoured for years.

‘ The Prince Regent appeared in public with much the same miserable state as his mother; indeed, his carriage was only a common Lisbonian one, something like our old single horse-chaise, with a head and curtains to it. It was exceedingly shabby, and bore on its pannels some of the ensigns of royalty, though not the royal arms. The Princess, his wife, when she did not accompany him in the carriage, sometimes went out on horseback, and, according to the custom of the country, rode astride. The children very seldom took the air, until a good strong family-chariot arrived,

arrived; a present, it was said, from the King of Great Britain. About the same time each of these three parties had an officer appointed, something like what, at our court, is called a Lord in Waiting.

This simplicity may be worthy of the times of Alcinous, but would probably be less favourable to the stability of royal authority in Brazil, than a more studious and costly introduction of the pageantries of European courts. A principal value of royalty consists in its exemplary effect. When it is employed in patronizing a taste for the refined pleasures of music, art, and literature,—in assembling the materials of luxury, and displaying the splendors of opulence,—it invigorates circulation, multiplies the forms of commerce, scatters the arts of instruction, polishes the public manners, and accelerates the progress of the national mass to the ultimate condition of civilized society. On the other hand, when it stoops to the level of the surrounding simplicity, it loses the habit and the reputation of superiority, the gratitude of instructive and embellishing expenditure, and the dignity of traditional distinction. The family of Portugal, however, had perhaps but little means and little inducement for the exhibition of sovereign splendor at the Brazils; and their recent return to Europe has deprived Rio even of the limited *éclat* which their residence had conferred on it.

In the fifth chapter, the author undertakes a voyage to the Plata, and makes his report of the newly-acquired Brazilian territory, the provinces of Parana and Uruguay, the towns of Matté, Castelhos, Santa-Teresa, Maldonado, Monte Video, and others. The fishes, rivers, lakes, soil, produce, and herds, are severally described. A curious Bible-society anecdote occurred at Maldonado:

‘Returning to dinner at the inn, our hostess favoured us with a dish of beef-steaks, of which she had learned the name, and which she supposed to be the favourite food of Englishmen. As in these houses there is no respect of persons, and as in this part of the world there is no notion of the comfort of a party eating by themselves, we had a great deal of company during dinner. The conversation was lively, and turned on a most unexpected subject. A few days before I left Rio the Spanish frigate *Zwoa* had touched there, in her way from Plymouth to the Plate. In England the crew had been furnished, by the British and Foreign Bible Society, with copies of the New Testament, in Spanish, two of which I had bought in the streets for six hundred and forty Reis, that is, three shillings and sixpence each; intending to improve my knowledge of the language during the voyage. In this object I was disappointed, the translation proving to be an impure dialect of the Spanish, which none of our crew well understood.

The

The people belonging to the frigate had sold other copies at Maldonado, before we arrived there, one of which appeared in the inn. Several persons were poring over it, and endeavouring to turn a narrative on which they had lighted, in one of the Evangelists, into intelligible Spanish. The matter was evidently new to them, and excited a very lively interest. On this subject the conversation turned, and led by their inquiries, we were induced to become lecturers in Christianity divinity, while we ate our dinner; the office devolving chiefly on one of our party, who spake the language of the listeners with fluency. The scene appeared to us most extraordinary at the time, occurring as it did among subjects of the most bigoted of Catholic powers in Christendom; nor can I, at this distant period, cease to contemplate it in something of the same light.

A vast idea of the estates of the country-gentlemen near Monte Video is given in the following statement:

'To speak of the parishes into which the country is divided, and the corresponding size of the farms, will appear to some like an approach to the borders of romance. The large estates of British nobility, measured by acres, dwindle into insignificant patches when compared with farms, measured not by miles, but by leagues. The former, however, cannot be accounted insignificant, when their high state of improvement is considered; nor the latter truly great, because they are unproductive. The whole land here is an untilled pasture; the range of horned cattle and horses of unknown numbers, and many of them useless to the proprietors. Once a year they are usually driven together into pens, on different parts of the farms, where they are counted, their marks ascertained, the young ones branded, and such other operations performed as nature or the wishes of the owners may dictate. This is made a season of festivity.

'During the war the conflicting armies had twice passed over the estate of a gentleman well known to many of our countrymen, and prevented this annual work and festival. His cattle had been slaughtered and his horses seized without reserve; and many of them, timid and wild, had fled from their accustomed pastures. When tranquillity returned, and the days of muster came, the proprietor anticipated a considerable diminution of their numbers; but this was so far from being the case, that his people had to set his mark upon more than eighty-three thousand which had not before been branded. The numbers just mentioned will stagger the faith of English graziers; but they would not have found a record here had they not been received from authority which strangers only can question.'

It is highly important legally to abolish the privilege of entail, and to compel, on the decease of every individual, the subdivision of landed properties, where such enormous tracts of land are monopolized by single owners.

Mr. L. introduces us in the succeeding chapter to the town of San Pedro do Sul, the coast of Rio Grande, the bar, the appearance of the country, the landing, the church, fort, custom-house, and ferry. Of the police, which too tamely resists the practice of assassination, of the state of medicine and military matters, of the commerce, occupations, amusements, and domestic circumstances of the people, many entertaining particulars are given. At the beginning of Lent, three days of frolic are allowed, called the *Intrudo*; during which the ladies pelt the gentlemen with hollow balls of coloured wax, filled with water. This odd ceremony is supposed to have been originally one of the modes by which priests communicated the water of baptism to persons who were indisposed to receive it.

A journey westward into the interior forms the subject of chap. vii. Mr. Luccock describes the use of the *lasso*, (or long rope with a noose by which the natives catch wild oxen, &c.) the docility of the horses, and the civility of the people. As the Emus abound in Van Dieman's Land, they deserve to be known to English colonists :

‘At no great distance an Emu started up, to which we gave chase, putting our horses to their utmost speed; the bird quickly left us far behind, then closed its wings and stalked on in careless security. Though the neighbouring sands are the natural haunt of these birds, they were now numerous on the plains, having been driven hither, I suppose, by dry weather; we had, in consequence, several chases of the same kind, all of them equally fruitless. On turning the corner of a wood, we suddenly came within thirty yards of an Emu, followed by about sixty young ones, which were probably several collected broods. She marched off with a stately step, carrying her head in a sort of semicircle, and looking at us first with one eye, then with the other. We again followed at full gallop; but as the pursuit continued the distance sensibly increased. The young birds clustered together, fluttered much, and advanced with evident haste; the pace of the old one was dignified and steady. She showed no marks of weakness, fear, or stupidity; on the contrary, while concerned for the safety of her charge, she seemed desirous to save them from unnecessary fatigue. Our guide entertained the common opinion of the country, that it is the male bird which in this way guides and protects the young; but, as more agreeable to the order of nature, I have not hesitated to speak of the leader as a female.

‘I kept one of these birds for some time, within a spacious stock-ado, until it became familiar, and occasionally impertinent. He allowed me to stride over his back, and could just support my weight; mounted by a boy of twelve years of age, he could run, and was easily guided by turning his head to the direction in which the rider wished him to proceed.’

Charqued beef is in this district a great article of exportation. When the cattle are killed and skinned, the flesh is taken off from the sides in one broad piece, slightly sprinkled with salt, and dried in the sun. It will keep long, forms an excellent sea-stock, and bears carriage to distant parts of the world.

A curious mineralogical fact is the generation of laminated sand-stone from drift-sand, which is thus detailed :

‘ My observations on this particular hillock will serve, also, to throw some light on the adhesion of the loose materials of which the neighbouring deserts are composed. Its encroachment on the street occasioned many men to be employed in clearing it away ; and it was matter of no small surprise to me, that, as they worked at the bottom, the heap did not slide downward, but the face of it remained nearly perpendicular. On closer inspection I found that the whole mass was composed of laminæ, which had acquired so much adhesion, that pieces might be taken out nearly as large as our half-crowns. I endeavoured next to find how and in what number these laminæ were formed. By ascertaining how many of them were contained in an inch, I concluded that the mass must be, at least, equal to the number of days in fifty years, and that the accumulated sand of each day was consolidated by the calmness and the dews of the succeeding night ; a variety of tints being observable in them, as in sand-stone in general, probably according to the measure of moisture employed in their formation. The appearance corresponded exactly with that of the micaceous laminated sand-stone of England ; so that it seems that sand, gathered by wind alone, would produce this kind of stone, and in fifty years might acquire consistency enough to enable the mass to support a face of ninety degrees.’

Chap. viii. The author now returns to Rio Janeiro ; and, as the city had undergone great improvement during his absence, and this description exhibits it in a better state than on his first arrival, we will notice the contrast :

‘ At court there began to appear some resemblance of European magnificence. The great and wealthy met there a welcome reception, not only on account of the degree in which they could render themselves intrinsically useful, but for the additional lustre which they communicated to royalty and its satellites. The old court-dress was required ; the private gentry became more attentive to propriety and taste in their modes of dress ; and state-liveries were introduced similar to those of Lisbon. Houses and their furniture made a proportionate advance in convenience and show ; carriages were becoming numerous, some of them splendid, and, when proceeding to court, were drawn by horses instead of mules, and attended by white servants instead of slaves. The levees of the Prince were frequent and respectable ; and, on high days, the ceremony of kissing hands was exhibited almost in public, for he

invariably placed himself, in order to enjoy fresh air, at a balcony, where he could be seen by the crowd of people assembled in front of the palace. This not only gratified their curiosity, but, in many cases, seemed to awaken an anxiety for distinction, and to give strength to political principle. Few are disposed to be disloyal, who are allowed to witness the ceremonies of a court, who know that they also may present themselves to the sovereign, complying only with established forms, on appointed evenings of the week, and find the road to honours equally open to merit wherever it appears.

On different occasions, the Regent had presented himself with confidence in the midst of his people. He had opened, with his own hand, a new public fountain, which brought, from a distance of four or five miles, the first of blessings in a climate like that of Rio. He had attended carefully to the management of the police, appointed some excellent officers, and promoted many Brazilians to places of honour and of trust. He had gratified the troops by treating them with freedom, and by attending reviews. To the people he had given consideration, and brought them to feel their importance as a state. In consequence he was hailed as the benefactor of the country, the founder of a new empire, and distinguished by the title, as he was in fact, the only civilized "Monarch of the South."

Theatrical amusements kept pace in improvement with matters of more immediate importance. Not only did the Regent indulge what seemed a strong personal taste, by his frequent attendance upon them, but he appeared in the theatre accompanied by his family. Hence it became fashionable for all, who wished to be thought persons of consequence, to show themselves there; and the spell which bound the Brazilian ladies to home and seclusion was broken. The multitude followed; some to wonder at the play, some to gaze at the fair. In the pieces represented, the manners, vices, dialect, and other peculiarities of the colony were ridiculed; and the public taste, in consequence, amended. The people had even advanced so far as diffidently venturing to applaud, when they were pleased: but had not sufficient confidence to express their disapprobation.

Great alteration was also taking place in ecclesiastical affairs. A nuncio had arrived from the Pope; rather to keep up the connexion of the Holy Father with the country than to issue and enforce the papal mandates. A bishop had been appointed to the widely extended see of St. Sebastian, who, without being a bigot, dared to do his duty, and managed with dexterity the multitude of ignorant and superstitious. He travelled to some parts of his diocese, and looked carefully into their religious state. He encouraged marriages, solemnized them in person, dispensed frequently with the edicts of Rome, and set aside the authority of his Lisbonian superiors, when it interfered with the welfare of his charge. He published some admirable pastoral addresses, in which he invited the people to religious observances, granted dispensations to those whose circumstances rendered a compliance inconvenient,

inconvenient, especially to the clerks and domestics of Protestants, but enjoined them, at the same time, not to mingle fish and flesh in their meals on days of sacred obligation, nor to dispute with heretics on the points of Catholic faith. The priests of the Chapel Royal had been set on a footing, in point of rank, with the *Monsenhors* of Lisbon, and the same dress was assigned to them. The number of effective clergy was increased, and their miserable pittance augmented. The sacred edifices were attended to, new ones built, the old cleansed and adorned, bells introduced, and cemeteries allotted, out of the city, to British subjects and to negroes. Convents were strictly inspected, the devotion of children to a monastic life was discountenanced, the loose discipline of those already professed was exposed and amended, and the intrusion of men of notoriously bad character, into the most sacred offices, in a great measure prevented. Priests, of all descriptions, were necessitated to maintain a regard to propriety of conduct in public; and the show of amendment no doubt sometimes led to the reality.

The articles, which may, without great inpropriety, be called the materials of religion, were supplied with a liberal hand. Churches and altars were decorated, images were procured and banners embroidered. In every department of religious service, both within doors and without, gold, silver, precious stones, silk, and laurels appeared in abundance. The ear as well as the eye and the sense of smelling were gratified; and Brazilians hardly knew which to admire most, the vestments of the altar, the modulation of the orchestra, or the odours of the censer. Divine service was performed more frequently, and the hours were rendered more reasonable. Processions of the host were less common, and conducted in a much more respectable manner; the images made their occasional appearance in the streets with greater decorum, and excited higher veneration. Brotherhoods, that most important branch of Catholic discipline, were established or filled up; every man was taught that it was his duty to connect himself with some one of them, and even negroes were allowed to put on the habit of an order, to carry a silver wand, and to appear in processions with princes and priests, the nobility of earth and of heaven.

Chap. ix. narrates a journey from Rio Janeiro westward to Caatumbi, to Boavista, a villa of the court, Lameron, Santa Cruz, Sepetiva, and the Indian village of Angra. Much information concerning farming is scattered in this section, which comprehends the survey of a wide and imperfectly settled district.—In the ensuing chapter, Mr. L. details his travels from Rio Janeiro eastward to Caaral, Tokai, St. Gonzales, Ponta Negra, and other places. A purple bird called a *sabiar* was shot near St. Gonzales, and, though badly wounded, immediately set up a full and melodious song, which continued until its latest moment. Were birds of this kind

kind known to the ancients, and the cause of their stories of the melody of dying swans? — Masses of granite were remarked by Mr. Luccock, which seemed to have the power of pushing themselves upwards through the soil; possibly by means of a wedge-shaped under-surface, which grows by an inherent force of crystallization, and presses against inferior strata. One of these masses was several miles in length, and about six hundred feet high. Every where, the granitic mountains tower above the contiguous fossils, and have mostly exhibited the power of uplifting the adjacent argillaceous or calcareous strata; so that the layers, which must have been horizontal during their formation, acquire an oblique position, the higher extremity of which abuts against granite. The degree of slowness or of speed, with which such mountains elevate themselves, has not yet been measured by science; but perhaps the destruction of the summits, by the incessant operation of weather and climate, so nearly counterpoises the tendency to accretion, that these rocks appear to retain a permanent and equal height.

The name *America* is here derived from the Tupi word *Marica*, signifying any hollow thing, and especially those hollow gourds which were instruments of worship among the Brazilian savages. A barrel, and a decked vessel, were called *Maricas* and *Americas* in Tupi language; and, from the frequent use of this word by the savages, the Europeans are conjectured to have mistaken it for the name of the country. — The porcupine is stated at p. 325. to have the power of discharging its quills.

Some curious mineralogical phenomena are noticed at p. 341. (chap. xi.), whence it seems probable that certain fossils split themselves into fragments by a crystalline force; and elsewhere the rapidity of fossil-growth in Brazil is traced in petrifications, and other more homogeneous minerals. This section is principally devoted to the descriptive relation of an excursion to the Upper Bay, and the rivers falling into it.

Chapter xii. narrates a journey northwards, and depicts a very unsettled country, in which even blacksmiths are still itinerant, and visit the several estates periodically. It is observed that all merchandise intended for consumption in the interior must be arranged in small packages, not exceeding two feet in length, and of a weight adapted for the convenience of mules, who carry about a hundred and a half. No wheel-carriage is to be found along the roads, or rather tracks; and the mechanical arts are so little understood, that the people were puzzled to divide a pig of lead into removable portions.

In

In the thirteenth chapter, a curious anecdote occurs:

‘ Among those who came to wonder at us, was a poor fellow, who, when flying from the French, had spent a few months in London, where he worked as a harness-maker, until sent to South America by the Portuguese Consul. Here he had given such extraordinary accounts of what he had seen in England, as to excite the incredulity and lose the confidence of his neighbours. He endeavoured now to regain it, by collecting the most sceptical of them and appealing to me in their presence as to the truth of his representations. Among other incredible things, he had said that all the houses, even those of the poor, in England had glass windows, and that the whole country was like one continued town, except that the buildings stood more thickly in some places than in others. “How,” it was asked, by those who had never seen a glazed window, “can those people be poor; who cover their windows with glass, a substance which with us is almost as valuable as gold, and more valuable, weight for weight, than silver is? and how can people find water whose houses are scattered over all the country? We have only four or five towns in as many hundred miles, and yet Brazil has too many inhabitants, for some of us are obliged to go into the Sertoens, or depths of the forest, to find new land.” The poor fellow was highly delighted with the representations I gave, and frequently bid his neighbours remark them, adding every now and then with emphasis, It is true, it is true. I wish the dialogue may have restored his credit, for he spoke with great feeling of his reception at Plymouth; and both I and my servant, a native of Interior Africa, fared the better to-night, for the kindness which this man had experienced several years before in my own country. So wide, in its influence and effects, is the interchange of good offices in society.’

An ingenious hydraulic machine is described at p. 435., but it is little adapted for European purposes. The Brazilians want instruction: tata-trees abound among them, which yield a turpentine superior in a hot country to that which is imported from Europe, and yet they are seldom tapped for that production.

The fourteenth and fifteenth chapters continue to delineate the province of Minas Geraes; and here the city of St. John del Rey is characterised as a town of the second order, and much better provided with conveniences than other inland-places. The neighbouring gold-mines are described with much detail: but mining is wisely treated as a comparatively unprofitable employment of human industry. In many over-peopled countries, it may be right to undertake a subterranean colonization: but, where the surface is still unoccupied, and the mineral beneath is not a necessary of life, the progress of society and population is more accelerated by digging the surface instead of the bowels of the earth, and

raising

raising vegetable instead of fossil productions. A prodigious mass of native iron is described at p. 490.

Mr. L. returns to his starting-place in chap. xvi., and visits Rio Janeiro for the last time. Various anecdotes of local usages and superstitions are given, which throw an interesting light on human manners. — The seventeenth chapter is chiefly occupied with the commercial and foreign relations of the country. The state of negro-slavery is represented as very mild; and indeed it appears to the author a necessary and wise institution in the circumstances of South America: slavery there amounting to no more than a form of rendering individual proprietors liable for that poor's rate which, in case of age or sickness, must be levied in behalf of the negroe, but could not so conveniently be assessed on parishes collectively. We extract the passage:

‘ Only one other regulation shall be mentioned, which appears to me excellent in its kind. If a master cohabit with his female slave, the act makes her free; but unfortunately, she is not always able to produce testimony, and much seldomer disposed to do so.

‘ That slavery is not always a heavy yoke in Brazil, may be gathered from several instances, which have been mentioned already. There is one other case, which strongly proves the same point, in the mode of carrying on the trade itself, and which has not been properly adverted to in discussions upon this question. A number of the seamen, employed on board slave-ships, are themselves negro-slaves, born in Africa; and though frequently going over to their own country, they do not leave the vessel there. They are discontented in Rio, and will frequently desert for trifling causes; but I never heard of a similar case on the African coast, and am disposed to consider it as a proof, that these people know slavery in Brazil to be preferable to their former condition in Africa. Nor did I ever find a good slave, that is, one whose mind is naturally docile, whose manners are social and domestic, and his habits industrious, who, after having been brought over, under the age of eighteen years, and residing two or three years in the country, under the care of a good person, was willing to go back again. I have known the son of a native prince refuse to return, have heard numbers declare that they should be perfectly happy, if they could remain always with the same master; and those of my own family, whom I thought capable of maintaining or taking care of themselves, when I must necessarily part from them, refused to go back to Africa, or have their liberty in Brazil. Two girls, particularly, in addition to this, refused to come to England, observing, “England, we are told, is very cold, and we shall not like it; and what shall we do with our liberty here? We have all we can wish for, you provide us food and clothes, and, if we are sick, you give us medicines and cure us; but if we have our freedom, we shall have nobody to take care of us.” I have copied here their exact expressions; they had often before asked me to send for their

their mothers, and now concluded by requesting only that I would procure them situations with English people.*

Mr. Bolingbroke, in his *Voyage to the Demerary*, (see Rev. vol. lviii. p. 1.) gives a similar opinion of the nature, state, and utility of negroe-vassalage in that region. — Many observations are made on British commerce, and government is exhorted to be more jealous of vessels navigated under the British flag, several of which are engaged in questionable transactions. Perhaps a slight tax on the tonnage of shipping, and a consequent register of British ships, would facilitate the distinction between smugglers, slave-traders, pirates, and regular merchantmen.

The Appendix contains a List of Signals, by which Vessels approaching the Port of Rio Grande do Sul communicate to the Pilot the depth of water which they draw: Commercial Tables of the Exports and Imports, chronicled at the different Custom-houses; and a Glossary of Tupi Words. — A plan of the city of San Sebastian, a map of the southern low-lands of Brazil, and another of the Table-land, are inserted in their proper places.

Altogether, this volume does much credit to the writer; who displays alertness of observation, versatility of attention, comprehension of view, soundness of judgment, and philanthropy of purpose. His style is natural and unaffected, yet various and lively: describing with picturesque precision the new places, manners, and objects which occurred to his view. Instruction will be gained by those who read this author for amusement, and amusement by those who read him for instruction. His book may be compared with the tatar-tree; the traveller who flies to it for shade will perceive that it distils a valuable gum; and he who taps it for the profit of its turpentine will linger to gaze on the girth of the stem, and the spread of its foliage.

* In other parts of the volume, however, the state of the slaves is far from favourably represented. Witness pages 202. and 203.

‘ Yet does it, almost every where, seem sufficient that a man have the hue of a negro, to mark him out as an object on which tyranny may exercise itself. — At the ferry we met with a couple of black men, whom we compelled, by showing our arms, and convincing them that resistance would be unavailing, to be our guides, and to carry us over the boggy places. — When on safe ground, and near the town, we dismissed them with a liberal payment, and an exhortation to be always civil to our countrymen. Had they been encountered and employed in the same way by a party of Brazilians, they would have been sent back unpaid. Such is the lot of slavery; and, wanting his services, a despot will not take the trouble to inquire whether a black man be bond or free.’

ART. XIV. *A new Method of Solving Equations with Ease and Expedition*, by which the true Value of the unknown Quantity is found without previous Reduction; with a Supplement, containing Two other Methods of Solving Equations, derived from the same Principle. By Theophilus Holdred. 4to. pp. 54. 7s. Davis and Dickson. 1821.

NOTHING shews more clearly than the present little work how much the notoriety of a scientific discovery depends on the previous celebrity of its author. The problem, of which we have here the complete solution, is one which has exercised the talents of all the most celebrated algebraists since the time of Cardan, viz. for about three hundred years, without success. In 1767, Lagrange published his memoir intitled "*De la Résolution des Equations Numériques*," which was considered as a master-piece of analytical address and ingenuity, and is quoted as such by our scientific journals, and by different writers both English and foreign; yet it must be acknowledged that, as to any practical results, it left the problem precisely in the state in which it before stood. The case is here very different. Mr. Holdred has unquestionably left "nothing to be desired," for the solution is complete in all its points: but the author is unknown; his name, perhaps, was never before heard by those mathematicians who were best able to judge of the value of his discovery; and the consequence is that little or no notice is taken of a solution which would, in the glowing language of some of our foreign neighbours, have conferred immortality on an Euler or a Lagrange. Still we have no doubt that, in the course of fifty or a hundred years, which may give birth to another Montucla, this problem will be introduced and form a prominent article in the history of analysis: particularly as the merit of the solution is claimed by more than one individual.

We have explained the principle of this method in our review of Mr. Horner's paper, published in the volume of the Philosophical Transactions for 1819; and in an account of Mr. Peter Nicholson's Algebra. (See M. R. vol. xci. p. 373. and vol. xciii. p. 410.) We shall therefore confine ourselves, in the present article, to an examination of the title of these gentlemen to the honour of the discovery.

In the first place, Mr. Nicholson acknowledges that Mr. Holdred shewed him the solution, and pretends to no other merit than that of simplification: consequently, we have only to attend to the original claims of Mr. Horner and Mr. Holdred. Mr. Horner's solution was published, or rather read before the Royal Society, in July, 1819; whereas it appears that

Mr. Holdred

Mr. Holdred had made Mr. Nicholson acquainted with his solution in June, 1818; and hence an inference has been attempted to be drawn that Mr. Horner, in a visit which he paid to London between June, 1818, and July, 1819, became acquainted with Mr. Holdred's solution. To this accusation Mr. Horner has replied in a letter addressed to mathematicians, in which he states that he was in possession of his solution prior to 1818; and that he had previously written to Mr. Barlow for the loan of a certain book in which he had mentioned the circumstance. We have seen the letter to Mr. Barlow, which is dated Bath, Aug. 18th, 1817, and which contains unquestionable proof that Mr. Horner was at that time in possession of his method of solution; and, as it does not appear that Mr. Holdred had shewn his solution to any person before June, 1818, it follows that Mr. Horner is very unjustly accused of this plagiarism. He was doubtless the original inventor of his own mode of solution; and although he has very unnecessarily involved its theory in some intricacy, its practical application is much more simple than the original method of Mr. Holdred. As to the method given by the latter gentleman in his Appendix, it is too much like that of Mr. Horner to allow any credit to be taken by him for it; Mr. Horner's paper having been published some months before this Appendix was sent to press.

The conclusion to be drawn from the above statement is, that Mr. Holdred was the first person who had actually discovered a direct and general practical solution of numerical equations, but that he had not reduced it to its most simple form; that a simplification of this method was published afterward by Mr. Peter Nicholson; and that, as nearly as possible at the same time, Mr. Horner's paper was read before the Royal Society: but, in his solution, he had certainly derived no aid from what had been previously done by the two former authors.

Had Mr. Holdred, forty years ago, when it appears he was in possession of this solution, and when he was a young man, made himself known by the publication of his method, it could not have failed to introduce him to mathematicians, and probably he might have found some reward for his ingenuity. Unfortunately, it appears but too plainly by a short advertisement delivered with the present work to the subscribers, that the author has not been one of fortune's favourites; and we sincerely wish that this notice may be the means of increasing the demand for his pamphlet, which certainly displays the efforts of a strong but unassisted genius, and exhibits the solution of one of the most interesting problems in analysis.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1821.

POETRY.

Art. 15. *Poems*: containing the Indian, and Lazarus. 12mo.
3s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

The notes that people the sun-beam, — the dead leaves that strew the forest, — are they more numerous than the poems that issue from the English press? and are they not infinitely more useful, and of a higher rank in creation? The natural ephemerals “live, and move, and have their being,” and remind man of that heavenly Father in whom he also exists. The withered honours of the woods speak a still more impressive lesson: — they say with Him of Chios,

‘Οἱ κίτρινες φύλλων γένεσι, τοιγὰρ καὶ ἀνδρῶν·

and recall the reflecting to that Great Spirit, to whom their own derived spirits shall return. Of what dignity, however, of what earthly or celestial effect, are the *objects* which we have compared to the mote and the leaf? Of no possible meaning, or application; until the art of discharging printing-ink from foolscap be brought to greater perfection, and the abused paper can be turned to better purposes. Do we speak too strongly of such stuff as that which is before us?

‘In the following tale an American warrior (with whose address it opens) is supposed to be returning from a distant excursion, with his wife, a young and beautiful Indian, when he is mortally wounded by an arrow from an ambush.’

This ‘ambush’ takes effect at page 9.; and the rest of the tale, to page 52., is occupied by “the last dying speeches and confessions” of the hero, and of his friends, natural and religious: which to us seems much about as interesting an arrangement, as it would be to drop the green curtain at the end of the first scene of a new play, to soft music; and then to bring out the principal character, wounded, between the curtain and the orchestra, to talk, die, and be shrieved, for three quarters of an hour!

We quote one of the best passages in the ‘Indian,’ where a ray of light is thrown over a little portion of the “darkness visible.”

‘A welcome sound salutes his ear,
Of rapid feet approaching near;
And soon that swift and friendly band
Mournful around their chieftain stand;
To his parch’d lips a draught applied,
And staunch’d the life-blood from his side.
O’er his faint limbs a mantle cast,
And gently on their shoulders placed.
’Gainst grief and pain he sternly steels
His breast, though sharp the pang it feels:
Throws a last glance on that wide plain —
Ne’er shall he rouse its deer again.

And as they tread the lofty height,
 Thinks how he sprang from slumbers light,
 And hail'd from thence the crimson beam,
 O'er all th' exulting prospect stream.
 Again that glory shall descend,
 Where'er those fairest scenes extend,
 Shall rest upon the mountain's snow,
 Shall pierce the waving woods below,
 And glance upon the river's flow.
 No more ! O agony of thought !
 Shall to his sight their charms be brought :
 No rising day his life shall know,
 No sweet return of joys below.
 They dearer seem'd at that farewell,
 With deeper force did mem'ry dwell
 On scenes, on loves, for ever fading,
 Like mother o'er her beauteous child,
 When death its shrinking form's invading,
 Thinks how it look'd and how it smiled ;
 To each fond moment gives a charm,
 That soothes, yet aids her soul's alarm.'

What a line is that among the above !

' When death *its shrinking form's* invading.'

Do our readers wish to hear any thing of ' Lazarus ? ' — *Ecce signum !* — Talking of love, the author musically exclaims,

' How soft its sighs, how sweet its solace falls !'

Art. 16. *Poems*. By Joseph Jones, M. A. 12mo. pp. 165.
 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

— This little volume consists chiefly of poems of a moral and didactic nature, but contains also a few satirical pieces, written in a free and liberal tone. Of the descriptive and preceptive portions, the object and motives are of a high and useful tendency ; — embracing very important views, and reasonings of a pleasing, consolatory, and energetic kind, well calculated to impress the truths of religion and the principles of right conduct on all classes of the community. Such a work cannot fail to be productive of beneficial consequences, in proportion as it is read. It manifests strong manly sense, united to warm and generous feeling ; not led away by wild enthusiasm and bigotry, nor damped by exclusive tenets and uncharitable cant. We could wish to see the hopes, the objects, and the firm yet gentle principles here inculcated, more widely diffused and recommended. They bear " healing on their wings," and would act as a gradual, but sure and wise corrective of the false and pernicious doctrines, both in religion and politics, which are at present too readily enforced and believed. It is not on such a foundation as they are that the reform and melioration of mankind can ever be effected. The true essence of reform will be found in the feelings and principles, often nobly and poetically expressed, though so rarely exemplified in practice,

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which Mr. Jones here so fondly indulges and so well pourtrays. He betrays, however, no few traces of an inexperienced hand; and we discover an inequality and incorrectness, with some false and a few feeble lines, which considerably diminish the effect and harmony of the whole. Still, though seldom rising to elevated and sublime expression, he always displays sufficient strength, united with good sense and feeling, to save him from the degradation of falling into the "great limbo" (and every nation has one) of British poets. His views of *Authorship, the Church, Greatness, Zeal, the Satirist, and Content*, which form the subjects of his poems, are all indicative of free and kindly thoughts, mingled with a knowledge of character and manners; and manifesting feelings deep and tender, such as only the poet can express.

Art. 17. *Vicissitude*; a Poem, in Four Books. Nottingham Park, and other Pieces. By Robert Willhouse, Corporal of the Staff of the Royal Sherwood Foresters. 12mo. pp. 105. Baldwin and Co.

When we consider the circumstances under which these poems were produced, they must be allowed to claim an indulgence to which they are also intitled by intrinsic merit. Denied by the poverty of his parents the advantages of more than the commencement of education, the author was compelled to gain his livelihood at six years of age, and was sent at ten to work in a stocking-loom. We are told these facts in a modest preface by the author's elder brother; who proceeds to state that, at sixteen, Robert evinced an inclination for the study of poetry, which originated in the following manner:

Being one day at the house of an acquaintance, he observed, on the chimney-piece, two small statues of Shakespeare and Milton, which attracting his curiosity, he read on a tablet, in front of the former, that celebrated inscription,

"The cloud-capt towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples," &c.

Its beauty and solemnity excited in his mind the highest degree of admiration! At the first opportunity he related the circumstance to me, with apparent astonishment, and concluded by saying, "Is it not Scripture?" — I told him it was a passage in Shakespeare's play of the *Tempest*, a copy of which I had in my possession, and that he had better read it.

Henceforward, it appears that he devoted every moment, which he could snatch from his daily toil, to the perusal of the English poets. In 1810 he became a soldier in the Nottingham Militia, and joined the regiment at Plymouth, where he shortly afterward made an attempt at composition; and, receiving encouragement, he continued his efforts.

With many disadvantages and defects, we think that this humble aspirant is still a poet; — uncultivated, deficient, and with all the poetic sins that belong to inexperience and youthful enthusiasm, but redeeming them by the presence of a rich and overflowing spirit; which, though it sometimes betrays him, never forsakes him.

him. With much fine and correct feeling, he presents us with some lively description of rural scenery, and a few genuine touches of nature : not often displeasing us, moreover, with mere commonplace, or weary expletives. He seems to write from the heart ; and as if he really rejoiced in the creations of his fancy and in giving language to his thoughts.

We quote a few lines composed in Nottingham Park :

‘ Oh native scenes ; full oft in joyous mood
Have you beheld me pacing o’er your plains ;
And where old Trent rolls on his sweeping flood,
There have I lull’d me with the Muse’s strains.
Even when remote, and billows roared between,
In thoughts of you my soul forgot its cares.
Fancy, in pleasing hues produced each scene
Sweet as when childhood through the gladsome years
With bright enchantment every change arrayed ;
Whether when violets blushed, or hawthorn bloomed,
When leaves, fast falling, did my path invade,
Or virgin snows the landscape’s charms entombed.
But whither now shall I for solace fly,
When in your fairest haunts I ceaseless sigh ?’

Art. 18. *Scripture Melodies* ; by a Clergyman. 12mo. pp. 80.
Baldwin and Co. 1821.

It is painful to censure well-intended endeavours of any kind : but really it is so unnecessary for the public, and so injurious to the writer, to multiply the rheams of foolscap which are wasted every season on what is called ‘ *poetry*,’ that we are bound to discourage the practice as much as we can. The present author observes that ‘ *many*,’ who would not read the sacred volume itself, will out of curiosity, if they have no other motive, read publications of this kind,’ &c. We are far from thinking thus. The readers of religious poems, we believe, are not numerous ; and they are chiefly to be found among those who really do bestow some portion of their time in examining the foundations or admiring the superstructure of their faith.

Our opinions on the subject of sacred poetry have been often declared : but by some readers they may have been a little misunderstood. If any one supposes us to condemn energetic and short effusions of *piety in verse*, he does very inadequate justice to our reasonings on this subject : but the present author has favoured us with *piety in prose*, under the mistaken name of ‘ *Melodies*.’ For example :

‘ “ *Why will ye Die ?* ” ’

‘ House of Israël ! “ why will ye die ? ”

Turn and repent, and the Lord will forgive :

House of Israël ! — vengeance is nigh,

Yet mourn for your sins, and your souls shall live.

‘ Ye have broken the statutes which I ordain’d ;

But observe them now, and the Lord will spare :

My temple with idols ye have profan’d,

But break them in pieces, and I will forbear.’

Again,

‘ “ *O Mountains of Gilbōā !*”

(As the author accents it, unlike Bishop Lowth, — “ *Triste solum, Gilbōā !*”)

- ‘ Let no dew be upon you, ye Gilboan mountains,
For there did the splendour of Israel fade ;
Let no showers, reviving, replenish your fountains,
For there Palestine’s Greatest in darkness were laid.
- ‘ Let your verdure the blast of the desert now wither,
For there Heaven’s anointed ingloriously died :
Let no cooling breezes, refreshing, fly thither,
For there sunk of Israel’s champions the pride.’

Again,

‘ “ *Let there be Light.*”

- ‘ Thus roll’d in thunder from the awful throne,
Where crown’d in glory the Immortal shone ;
The voice divine, “ Let light, let light arise !”
An instant brightness kindled o’er the skies.’

Can there be any thing worse, weaker, and more unworthy of the original, than this repetition — “ Let light, let light arise !” The miserable idea of the Deity commanding twice !

What has the following to do with ‘ Scripture-Melodies ?’

- ‘ Did not tears my eye *begem*,
When other eyes were filling ?
Did I not rejoice with them,
Whose hearts with joy were thrilling ?
- ‘ But did gladness swell my breast,
When other breasts were sighing ?
Did I fly the weak oppress,
When all besides were flying ?
- ‘ Never ! — then may mercy’s beams
Dispel this gloom of sadness ;
May they chase these troubled dreams
Which urge me e’en to madness.’

How utterly insipid, and destitute of spirit and melody, is the subjoined, and on such a subject !

‘ “ *The Sceptre shall not depart from Judah.*”

- ‘ The sceptre no power shall rend,
O my son, Judah, from thee ;
Thy polity Heav’n will defend,
For such is the Godhead’s decree.
- ‘ Till the Shiloh, the promis’d of old,
Shall beam on the nations afar ;
And all kingdoms, expectant, behold
The rays of this long rising star.’

We

We trust that some better hands will be employed on the 'Melodies' preparing for the Established Church.

The information in the notes to this feeble little work is profound indeed. For instance :

'The sea was divided by the Almighty, to open a passage for the children of Israel.'

'The triumph Christ obtained, inasmuch as he rose from the dead on the third day after his crucifixion.'

'It was the destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans which dispersed them (the Jews) over the earth.'

The world indeed will not contain the books that shall be written, (we may say it without an orientalism,) if men are thus to go on *publishing*, for the use of each other, what they should confine to their own roofs for the instruction and amusement of their children.

NOVELS.

Art. 19. *Sympathy in search of Peace at Home.* A Novel of a Novel Kind, &c. By Henry Barnet Gascoigne. 12mo. pp. 276. 5s. Boards. Robinson. 1821.

This is, indeed, as the author expresses it, 'a novel of a novel kind — a tale of the times, from Carlton-house to the poor-house — an evening's amusement for yourself and your friends, at which every one is invited to laugh, but no one obliged to cry.' From the latter statement, however, we are inclined to dissent, as we meet with some very moving digressions, and some stories by which we are sure that the author intended to oblige his readers to cry. The work is preceded by a patriotic dedication to Mr. Wilberforce, a quotation from which will convey the best idea of the objects and meaning of the book.

'A particular train of circumstances, extensive practice in the agricultural employment of the poor, and perhaps some peculiarity of disposition, have led me, for a series of years, to pay a steady attention to the actual state of the third class in the British community; and to the causes which have produced that lamentable departure from the valuable principle of self-dependence on the part of the poor, and that rapid increase of a pauper-population; which, if not immediately stayed in their course, and diverted from feeding upon the industry of others, will inevitably destroy the balance of society, and bury our present institutions in *sudden dissolution*, or *rapid ruin*.'

We do not quite see, in this *lengthy* paragraph, the propriety of the distinction drawn by the word *or*, between *sudden dissolution* or *rapid ruin*; and we advise this prophetic politician to substitute the words *gradual* or *distant* ruin, in order the better to *preserve* or *insure* his character for sagacity. Even Cassandra did not pretend to point out the precise period of the desolation and utter razing of Troy; — and it is always wise in these melancholy Mentors of our doom to content themselves with assuring us that it will *some time happen*, without threatening us, like the famous Partridge, of *Almanac-memory*, with the day of our execution.

With the exception of the political articles, this little volume displays a considerable share of humorous and pathetic description ; as well as some traits of life and character which shew the author to be a man of observation, and a true citizen of the world. We must not, however, attempt a particular enumeration of all the momentous subjects under discussion, which remind us of the old discourse "*De omnibus rebus, et quibusdam aliis* : — such a range of observation, and political, moral, critical, and all other sort of matter, from Carlton-house to the poor-house, do they embrace. We have a hobby-horse introduced, in the manner of Sterne ; — a scene at Gravesend ; — self-interest defined ; — the existence of philanthropy doubted ; — no distinction between black and white ; — abolition of the slave-trade ; — sailors adrift without a Purser ; — Mendicity Society ; — the heart of a tar laid open ; — an author's story ; — authors and booksellers ; &c. &c. Some of these original pieces are treated in a lively and instructive way : but the style and manner are far from being very cultivated or polished ; the images are rather low, and the interest is altogether of a plebeian kind.

Art. 20. *The Life and Adventures of Guzman d'Alfarache, or the Spanish Rogue.* Translated from the excellent French Edition of M. Le Sage. By John Henry Brady. 12mo. 2 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

The Spanish Rogue was in higher reputation in the beginning of the last century than he is at present. "There is hardly any language in Europe that knows not Guzman ; and the Spanish Rogue is as much talked of as if there was no other in the world," is the observation of one of his early translators. The name of the Spanish author was Don Diego Puede-Sur. Ben Jonson distinguished the book by a copy of verses on the "Author worke and translator." It derived, however, its celebrity in France from its translation by the author of *Gil Blas*, whence it is again done into English by Mr. Brady, who pleads his youth in extenuation of its faults.

Guzman, however, though sometimes an entertaining rogue, is not likely to be again popular among us. A great revolution has silently taken place in our feelings and taste ; which must revert once more to the grossness whence an improved system of manners and of thinking has redeemed them, in order to relish his *fourberies*.

Art. 21. *Concealment.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Warren. 1821.

In spite of all the denunciations, moral and literary, which governesses and critics have fulminated against the increasing evils of our literary *circulating medium*, the press still continues to teem with works of fiction, which of course present every varying shade of merit. Far be it from us to decry this class of productions in the wholesale terms of Mr. Coleridge ; who ranks novel-reading with the refined amusements of "swinging or swaying on a chair or gate, spitting over a bridge, smoking and snuff-taking *;" and

* *Biographia Litteraria*, i. 50.

who doubtless prefers the instructive reveries of the German psychologists to the frivolous inventions of Smollett or Fielding. On the other hand, however, we do not carry a romance to our pillow with us, as Curran was wont to do, and read it the last thing at night and the first in the morning. Steering the middle course between these two extremes, we can welcome the publication of a new novel if it be a good one, because in this case an additional stock of harmless gratification is thus secured to the world; and, to those whose minds are intently occupied during the greater part of the day with matters of a graver nature, the relief which a fictitious narrative affords in the evening is both a potent and a pleasant medicine to the intellect.

We are afraid, however, that we cannot class 'Concealment' among the novels which repay in amusement and information the toil of reading them. It certainly ranks above the trash of our circulating libraries, but it has no features by which it can be distinguished from the myriad of similar productions that beguile the hours of those young ladies, whom fate has placed within the dull circuit of a small country-town. Yet the volumes are not ill written, and some of the characters possess considerable beauty and feeling. The misfortunes of Mrs. Lawrence are touchingly described, and the death-scene of Mr. Derwent is affecting; but the character of Lady Maria Carlmaine is unnatural; and we must enter our protest against the miserable termination of Frederick's fortunes, who really does not seem to have deserved the severities which the author has heaped on him. At all events, we give the writer full credit for the desire which is expressed in the preface, of shewing 'the intrinsic excellence and solid advantages of truth, virtue, and religion.'

E D U C A T I O N .

Art. 22. *Practical Method of teaching the Living Languages, applied to the French.* By C. V. A. Marcel. 8vo. pp. 82. 4s. Boards. Hurst and Co.

The author of this ingenious volume is of opinion that many forms of tuition, unusual in the Lancasterian schools for children, may with advantage be applied to the instruction of boys in the living languages. He thus details his project:

'The pupils should sit facing a large black board, on which, whatever the professor wishes to explain is represented. In private tuition, recourse may be had to a slate or paper when ocular explanations are required, which could not be done in a large class, as the scholars could not all see those explanations at once. The board is the only means to effect this. Their comprehensions must be thereby greatly assisted, as instruction would be conveyed to the mind through the senses of seeing and hearing at the same time.

'Each day a rule or two of the grammar should be minutely explained to the entire class, and also the difference between the genius of the two languages; and every proposition or rule brought forward should be illustrated by numerous written examples, for

which purpose the board is admirably adapted. Then the pupils should be successively called on to repair to the board, and explain to the other scholars, under the eye of the master, the rule already given by him; and each giving a new application of it would afford evidence of its being well understood. "Merely to understand the rules of the art of speaking, and to commit them to memory, does not constitute a perfect knowledge of those rules: we should also be in the habit of applying them." (Condillac.)

' It should be mentioned that the pupils ought to write on their slates the French sentences illustrative of the rules as written on the board. This has the three-fold advantage of keeping up their attention, of giving them the practice of writing French, and of impressing on their memory the phraseology, construction, and orthography of the language, and thereby obviating the common practice of writing exercises.

' In the intervals between the lessons, they would be required to prepare, on their slates or paper, French sentences as examples of the last explained rules; which, on the following day, they would be called on to explain and to give their examples.

' By thus composing phrases and illustrating the various rules that have been explained to them, they not only understand better those rules, and can more easily recollect them; but also they accustom themselves to express their own thoughts, and by degrees are enabled to compose letters or essays on any subject. And when practice has rendered French construction easy, they will be able to write in that language without thinking of the English sentence; that is, they will have attained the most desirable and important object in the study of a foreign language, the power of thinking it. Besides, their mind will be exerted, which is not the case in writing exercises; for then it makes no effort, and their improvement consequently cannot be so great. Little progress is made in general without repeated exertion. The mind and the body are, in this particular, subject to similar laws. Whatever exercise of the latter we wish to excel in, we make certain efforts; no doubt at first we fail; but every failure serves to ensure success. Thus in composition or exercises of the mind, the difficulties and the certainty of committing errors ought not to deter the student from persevering. His ignorance throws no blame on him; but, on the contrary, a consciousness of it mixed with a desire of improvement, and some confidence in the attempt, must greatly contribute to his success. The mistakes of every one are made subservient to the advantage of all, by writing them on the board, and having them corrected by some of the class with proper remarks.'

The more education is studied, the more evident it becomes that a mechanical repetition of the elementary acquirements is the principal secret for so depositing them in the memory as to render them available at will. To "worship echo" was the advice inscribed on the school of Pythagoras; and it still constitutes the most efficacious process of instruction. Whether the master himself

self superintends the lessons, or delegates to monitors the care of exciting the pupils to loud and simultaneous rehearsals of them, it is generally in proportion to the number of times that any thing is said over that the recollection of it is acquired by the pupil. The drill-schoolmanship of the Hindoos owes to this principle its chief value; and, as in acquiring the military exercises it is practice which makes perfect, (not the organized subordination of the officers,) so in learning languages, or science, if we compel the frequent iteration of the sounds, the words, the sentences, and the propositions to be acquired, they will at last be durably *hammered in* to the mind. Perhaps the relative force of intellects may best be measured by their *malleability*. How many strokes of the *hammer* of repetition does it require to impress a given idea? The fewer are found sufficient, the more satisfactory is the memory of the learner. There is also considerable reason for supposing that loud study is more efficacious than silent study; and that, if mutual interruption can be avoided with simultaneous application, it is better to exercise at once both the tongue and the eye.

P O L I T I C S.

Art. 23. *Letters addressed to the Earl of Liverpool*, on the Distress of the Mercantile, Shipping, Agricultural, and Manufacturing Interests, with the several Remedies proposed: the whole earnestly addressed to the Ministry and both Houses of Legislation, at this momentous Crisis. By Joseph Pinsent. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

Art. 24. *Conversations on Political Economy*, or a Series of Dialogues supposed to take Place between a Minister of State and Representatives of the Agricultural, Manufacturing, Shipping, Colonial, Commercial, and Monied Interests; as well as of the labouring Classes of Society: with Remarks on our present Distresses, their Causes, and the Remedies applicable to them. By Joseph Pinsent. 8vo. pp. 108. Richardson.

These pamphlets are the composition, not of a political economist but of a practical man, an inhabitant of the city of London, who disclaims all closet-theories, and dates his appeal to ministers from the centre of mercantile bustle, the vicinity of Birchin-lane. Mr. P. in fact reviews several of the notions of the mercantile system; recommending the imposition of a heavy duty on foreign corn, and, in general, such taxes on foreign commodities as shall place our products out of the danger of competition. 'I am,' he says, (*Conversations*, p. 65.) 'a great admirer of foreign trade, but it must be such as does not injure our domestic and colonial intercourse. Such in my opinion is our trade with Portugal, Spain, Asia, South America: my rule is, first give protection to home-interests, and then open our ports to foreign trade.' In some points, however, without any previous plan or concert in reasoning, he coincides with the views of theoretic writers; as, for instance, in demanding for our private traders to India and China the same degree of freedom that is given by our laws to Americans and other foreigners. He proposes farther the relin-

relinquishment by the Company of their exclusive privilege of trade to China, on their receiving a pecuniary allowance from the Treasury; for the payment of which the government, he thinks, would soon be indemnified by the increased produce of the duty on tea, since the reduced charge of the private trade would, he thinks, diminish the cost of the article ten per cent., and increase proportionally its consumption and the amount of duty.

The pamphlet intitled 'Conversations on Political Economy' was published after the 'Letters to Lord Liverpool,' and is written on the plan of discussing questions of political economy in a series of dialogues, in which the querist is a minister of state, and the respondent, a manufacturer, a ship-owner, a sugar-planter, a stockholder, or a member of some one of twenty distinct classes whom Mr. P., in his ardour for disquisition, has successively brought on the scene. Each of these explains the grievances attached at present to his trade or employment, and discusses with the minister the means of relief; stating objections with great freedom not only to measures of old date, but to the plans of recently appointed committees. The sugar-planter, for instance, represents his sufferings as arising from a decrease of demand; a decrease owing partly to the deficient consumption of the home-market from the reduced circumstances of the buyers, and partly to the circumstance of the price of cotton having obliged the cotton-planter to transfer his land to the culture of sugar. All these different interests, says Mr. P., may be compared to the radii or spokes of a coach-wheel, regulated by the fellys, and protected by the iron tire: at present, a part of the fellys and iron tire is withdrawn from one or more of the spokes, and superadded to the others, so as to disturb the mutual correspondence and balance. In this view of our situation we concur with Mr. P.; and we are inclined also to coincide with him in the proposition of granting our colonies a right to send representatives to parliament. On the other hand, nothing can be more opposite to our notions of freedom than his plan (p. 41.) of fixing the rate of wages by law; and proposing that, in the case of agricultural labour, a regulated deduction should take place until he attains a certain age (45), or becomes the father of three children.

Passing from these to some collateral topics, we find Mr. P. urging (Letters to Lord Liverpool, p. 28.) the propriety of establishing a substitute for tithes, and imposing on the public at large that burden which is at present borne by the landed interest alone; a point in which we agree with him. This suggestion is followed by the bolder proposition to take off taxes to the amount not only of those which affect the necessaries of life, but the house and window tax; replacing the whole by a property-tax on a large scale, to be paid by fund-holders in common with the landed and mercantile interests. This scheme, adventurous in itself, is supported by not less adventurous calculations; and, having lately bestowed considerable pains on a computation of our national income, we cannot avoid remarking how greatly Mr. P. has over-rated (p. 52.) the rental of the land in the kingdom, when

when he states it at 70,000,000*l.*, and the rental of our houses, when he estimates it at 50,000,000*l.*; the latter being nearly three times the sum allowed by laborious conclusions founded on the *data*, by no means illiberal, of Mr. Colquhoun, as well as on official returns under the property-tax.

Mr. P. has had, we suspect, no reason to applaud the politeness or attention of men in office; for it seems, with a view to prevent disappointments of this nature to himself and brother-projectors, that he brings forwards (p. 36.) the proposition that government should establish a 'Board of Communication' for receiving all letters, plans, and propositions, and forwarding them to the proper officers. Among the minor grievances alleged by the writer, is the restraint imposed (Letters to Lord Liverpool, p. 9.) on our ship-builders in the exercise of their art, in consequence of the mode of measuring the tonnage of our vessels for registry at the custom-house: a complaint which, if well founded, ought to be forthwith redressed. Nothing, we admit, can be more pure than the morality (p. 69.) of Mr. P., or more true than his fundamental doctrine that the different interests in the state are mutually dependent on the prosperity of each other: but we must add that we have seldom met with a writer who takes the lead of Mr. Pinsent, (pp. 67, 68.) in a predilection for new schemes; or who falls into more grievous mistakes, when an adherence to the mercantile theory places him at variance with the doctrines of a more enlightened school.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. ZHTHMATA ΔΙΑΝΟΗΤΙΚΑ, or a View of the Intellectual powers of Man, &c. [By Thomas Martin.] Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 64. Longman and Co.

The first edition of this luminous and elegant treatise was noticed with applause in our xciid volume, p. 314.; and we have now the pleasure of announcing a second impression, in which many variations and ameliorations occur; for instance, at pages 11. 15. 18. 25. and 29. The pages 35. to 37. have been almost wholly recast; and we find changes also in pages 43, 44. and 63.

Perhaps the most remarkable addition is the following grammatical speculation:

'A consequence of the association of our sensations will be seen, if we alter the orthography of our words by accommodating it to their pronunciation; the preference which we give to unmeaning letters, obviously arising from a bias of the mind occasioned by associations of the eye. What reader of English can bear *thaut* for *thought*: unchanged as it leaves both the sound and the sense; and taking as he must, two consonants without meaning and a false vowel whenever he writes the word *thought*? Spelt, when we write as when we speak, it becomes to us barbarism.

'The truth is, that we have prematurely fixed the orthography of our language; whence disagreement between the pen and the tongue increases as pronunciation improves. 'O is still right in "*thought*," in several of the northern counties; and in Scotland, the

the g and h are not unmeaning in "eight." The antient "nought" or "noghte," a word in too constant use to retain too many letters, has been long written "not;" the prolix mode, nevertheless, occurring in the fourteenth century. By continuing to improve, as we improved in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, we should have had a perfect orthography, with reciprocal advantage to pronunciation; pronunciations of best authority, when the words are written as they are spoken, becoming, by means of the press, familiar to all; and in languages advanced to equal perfection with our own, such pronunciations, aided by such an orthography, being little exposed to change. Habituated, however, to letters combined anomalously, we can prefer the most clearly wrong to the most clearly right.

'That *pamphlet* for *pamphlet* is offensive to us in English, not in French, is an instance of bias like the former, and from the same source. Thus partial are we from our associations.'

In our judgment, this writer would do well to draw up a more extensive manual of ideology, and to provide a comprehensive grammar of metaphysics for the use of those who are beginning to study the philosophy of mind. We have still many elementary doctrines concerning the origin, connection, and reproduction of sensations and ideas, which yet require precise expression and consequently await general assent.

- Art. 26. *An Attempt to analyze the Automaton Chess-Player of M. de Kempelen: illustrated by Drawings.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Booth. 1821.

We have already, more than once, taken notice of the ingenious mechanical exhibition of M. de Kempelen; and the sagacious and curious tract before us, which, we believe, first appeared in a philosophical journal, undertakes to reveal the method by which the Automaton Chess-player accomplishes its surprising operations. They are here referred to the internal concealment of a living human agent. Like the Brobdignagians of a recent pantomime, the Automaton, it seems, has a window in its breast, and bowels of hospitality. Five engravings exhibit the successive stations of the machinery, and indicate by dotted lines the contemporary attitude of the concealed person. The whole explanation is convincing, and does honour to the author's ingenuity, if it has been devised without any communication of the secret.

It may be worth while to add that the Automaton Chess-player was first introduced into England about the year 1783 by M. de Kempelen, its inventor; and that it was brought again into this country about three years ago, under the direction of M. Maelzel. To those who collect the now extensive literature of chess, this will be a welcome additional publication.

'A copious collection of the knight's moves over the chess-board' is added, but is rather irrelevant to the main subject.

- Art. 27. *The Theory of Elocution, exhibited in Connexion with a New and Philosophical Account of the Nature of Instituted Language.* By B. H. Smart, Professor of Elocution, and Public Reader of Shakspeare. 8vo. pp. 150. 7s. Boards. Richardson. Mr. Smart,

Mr. Smart, to whom we owe this compendious and useful work, is already known advantageously by a *Practical Grammar of English Pronunciation*, published in 1810; and, wisely continuing to labour in the same department of instruction, he here offers a *Theory of Elocution*. His ideas are clear, and his style is perspicuous: his illustrations are well-chosen both for aptness and moral tendency; and his observations are usually just, and often original. Such, for instance, are the following remarks on the mechanical structure of English verse:

‘ In verse, as the rhythmus becomes a particular object of the writer’s attention, it should seem that it must depend much less on the management of the reader. True it is, more care is generally required in reading verse to avoid, than to maintain, a too measured accentuation; for, generally speaking, the rhythmus ought to stand in need of no accents, but such as we might with propriety adopt in reading it as prose. But since in prose a latitude is allowed, and one person will employ more or fewer accents than another, it becomes necessary to know, in reading verse, how to make use of this liberty with most advantage to the rhythmus. And as besides it very often happens, either through an original fault of the poet, or some change effected by custom in the accentuation of words, that the verse is manifestly defective, it becomes still more necessary to know by what means to conceal or amend the deficiency. Some account of the mechanical structure of verse will therefore be necessary.

‘ Writers on English versification have been at the pains of explaining it on the system of the ancients; and even Mr. Sheridan, who exposes many absurdities of this mode of treatment, divides it into the several varieties of Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic, and Amphibrachic, and speaks of the introduction of spondees, and pyrrhics, and dactyls, and tribrachs, in order to diversify those metres. But discarding the ancient terms altogether, which were adapted to verse depending not on accent, but on quantity, it seems possible to explain the structure of English verse much more easily. In the first place, it will be found substantially of two kinds only, namely, dissyllabic and trisyllabic. The dissyllabic has for its regular interval one unaccented syllable between each accent — the trisyllabic two unaccented syllables. All the other differences in English verse consist only in varying the length of the lines, in omitting an unaccented syllable at the beginning, or adding one at the end, and in departing more or less from that regularity of accentuation which is taken as the standard, and which, however it may occasionally give way, still predominates. The reader may satisfy himself of the truth of this account by merely inspecting the examples furnished in any English prosody; still remembering that it is not the feet in any single line that determines the character of the rhythmus, but the predominant movement of the whole stanza. Now the different lengths of the lines, and the different ways of beginning and ending them, are obvious varieties, and it therefore only remains to explain under what limitations the poet, and consequently the reader, is allowed to deviate from that regularity

larity of accentuation which is the foundation of the rhythmus. First, then, for our ten syllable verse with the dissyllabic movement, which kind of verse is by far the most common, and suffers greater liberties with its accentuation than any other. The limitations to variety of accent in this verse are as follow :

‘ There must be an accent to mark the end of the lines, and, consequently, that on the tenth syllable can never be removed without reducing the line to prose.

‘ EXAMPLE I.

‘ Which of us who beholds the bright surface
Of this ethereous mould — *Par. Lost*, vi. 472.

‘ Beyond all past example and future. *Par. Lost*, x. 840.

‘ Here we must adopt the accentuation marked, though contrary to all good modern usage.

‘ Lines in dramatic poetry often have eleven syllables, but the last is only a kind of rebound to the preceding accent, and forms, with it, what is properly called a double ending.

‘ EXAMPLE II.

‘ The wide, the unbounded prospect lies *before-me*,
But shadows, clouds, and darkness, rest *upon-it*. ADDISON.

‘ The next essential accent in this kind of verse is that on the sixth syllable :

‘ EXAMPLE III.

‘ ———— Angels held their residence,
And sat as princes, *whom* the supreme King
Exalted, &c. *Par. Lost*, i. 735.

‘ ———— who shall with us extol
Thy goodness infinite, *both* when we wake
And when, &c. *Par. Lost*, iv. 794.

‘ Here, in order to support the former line, we must accent *whom*, and, to support the latter, we must accent *both*, though in prose neither of the words, as they are circumstanced, would decidedly claim an accent. Or, if the accent is neglected on the sixth syllable, it is still possible to support each of these verses by accenting the fourth and eighth. The fourth, indeed, in both of them must, in any case, have an accent.

‘ And sat as *princes*, whom the supreme King —
Thy goodness infinite, both *when* we wake —

‘ Hence the accents on the fourth and eighth syllables, when the sixth will not bear an accent, are essential to the support of a line.

‘ Irreconcilable to *our* grand foe,
Who now, &c. *Par. Lost*, i. 122.

‘ EXAMPLE V.

‘ ———— the tree;
Which tasted *works* knowledge of *good* and evil.’
Ibid. vii. 548.

‘ The

'The necessity of these accents is evident on this simple principle: — the natural division of an heroic line is at the sixth syllable; the accent at that place is therefore the chief accent; it is in the middle, and is the great stay or support of the line: take away that support, and you can supply it only by two others at equal distances from it toward each end. — Such are the limitations to variety of accent in our English heroic verse; *and these are all of them*; for as to the other syllables, it is at the poet's option to omit or impose an accent on any one he pleases.'

To be a fine reader is a rare and a valuable accomplishment; which powerfully contributes to domestic amusement and family instruction, and diffuses at once the sympathies of taste and the acquirements of study. The Greeks trained certain persons under the name of *Anagnōstes* to read well aloud, who attended at theatres and banquets to recite the master-pieces of literature. Atticus, as Cornelius Nepos informs us, was in the habit of treating his guests with the reading of some new composition, which was performed by a sort of secretary; and Juvenal, in his second satire, promises, as part of his entertainment, that portions of the *Iliad* and *Æneid* shall be recited to the company. The Emperor Alexander Severus piqued himself on being a fine reader, and frequently delighted his own family by the display of this valuable talent. It is not very fashionable among ourselves to read printed books aloud, because every body is presumed to have seen already as much of them as he covets: but in blue-stocking parties, or *conversazioni*, the unpublished manuscript of a favourite author is occasionally produced with applause; and those artist-readers, who carry to unusual perfection the arts of oral delivery, are sometimes invited to read a well-known classic, that his expressions may drop mended from their tongue. No doubt, it is in the power of a skilful reader to conceal many imperfections, and to evolve many latent beauties, in the composition which he undertakes to deliver; if not even to create that excitement which beautiful writing is supposed to produce, by the mere means of his own personal tones and graces of utterance.

Art. 28. *An Epistle from a High Priest of the Jews to the Chief Priest of Canterbury*, on the Extension of Catholic Emancipation to the Jews. 8vo. 1s. Wilson. 1821.

If we may be allowed the pun, we should term this pamphlet a *JEU d'esprit*. In the following passage, which is almost the only one that is serious throughout it, the author expresses well the true principle of religious liberty:

'Every man has an undoubted right to judge for himself in matters of religion; nor should any mark of infamy, or any civil penalty, be attached to the exercise of his right. Every man has a right to the common privileges of the society in which he lives; and, among these common privileges, a capacity in law for serving his sovereign and country is one of the most valuable, distinguishing a *legal capacity* of service from a *right* to an actual appointment, which depends upon the choice of his sovereign, or of his fellow-citizens; and this capacity of serving the state is a right of such

such high estimation, and of such transcendent value, that exclusion from it is deemed a proper punishment for some of the greatest crimes. Actions, and not opinions, political or religious, are the proper objects of human authority or cognizance. No man, who does not forfeit that *capacity* of serving his sovereign and country, which is his natural right, as well as the honour and emoluments that may happen to be connected with it, by overt acts, ought to be deprived of them; and disabilities that are not thus incurred are unjust penalties, implying both disgrace and privation. Punishment, without the previous proof of guilt, cannot be denied to be an injury; and injuries inflicted on account of religion are undoubtedly persecutions. The ends of civil society can never justify any abridgement of natural rights that is not essential to these ends. The institutions of religion, and the ordinances of civil government, are distinct in their origin and their objects, in the sanctions that enforce them, and the mode in which they are administered.

In many other places, the writer forgets his assumed character: as in one, for instance, he talks of priests having behaved as *priests generally behave*, wickedly, ambitiously, cruelly, and impiously. He several times describes chancellors of the Exchequer and tax-gatherers as '*Jews in every respect, saving circumcision*.' In one page, he inquires 'why might not the land of Canaan be as profitably represented in parliament as the kingdom of Scotland, and with as little prejudice to the Church of England from our Synagogue as from their Kirk? *Why may we not adorn one side of St. Stephen's Chapel with our Alpine noses and tallow faces, in as becoming a manner as our northern brethren appear with their high cheek-bones?*'—In another passage, he observes;

'The analogy between Dissenters and Jews requires no other evidence than the pastors of each persuasion. How precisely do they concur in the black gown and the short bib prescribed in the chapters of Leviticus? How perfectly does the dirty phiz of many an Irish priest, and many a Methodist cushion-thumper, accord with the bista-coloured sable hue of a rabbi of Israel? How exactly alike are the dimensions of their consciences, and the reach of their understandings; their zeal for good works; and above all for the ready penny?'

The author too frequently, therefore, spoils the humour of the piece by not keeping his head under his hood and cloak.

NOTICE.

The APPENDIX to Vol. xcv. of the *Monthly Review* is published with this Number, and contains a number of important articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE; with the *General Title, Table of Contents*, and *Index* for the Volume.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For OCTOBER, 1821.

ART. I. *A Narrative of Travels in Northern Africa, in the Years 1818, 1819, and 1820; accompanied by Geographical Notices of Soudan, and of the Course of the Niger. With a Chart of the Routes, and a Variety of Coloured Plates, illustrative of the Costumes of the several Natives of Northern Africa.* By Capt. G. F. Lyon, R. N. companion of the late Mr. Ritchie. 4to. pp. 388. With Maps and Plates. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

OFTEN as our attention has of late been drawn to books of travels in Africa, it is still so much of an "undiscovered country," that every new record of reiterated efforts to explore it is sure of exciting an eagerness of perusal, though that labour is not equally certain of adequate reward. Too much mournful disappointment and fatal termination have indeed characterized the recent attempts of our adventurous explorers: yet, "*uno avulso, non deficit alter,*" and fresh candidates arise as others fail. One of our hardy sons of Neptune here calls on us to follow his steps in encountering uncongenial danger, and artlessly forces from us our sympathy in his narrow and difficult escape. His detail is in truth simple and unpretending: it contains not one trace of professed authorship: it claims no merit in a literary point of view; and it abounds neither with scientific disquisition nor with antiquarian discovery. Yet who among his readers will not acknowledge that they have been deeply interested by the perusal of his narrative? If our estimate of its merits be correct, they consist chiefly in the unadorned and unaffected style of the composition in general, and particularly in those parts which relate without sentimental whining, or absurd attempts at pathos, the severe sufferings and perilous adventures sustained by the author in the prosecution of his journey.

To the melancholy list of those unsuccessful enterprizes in pursuit of the mysterious source of the Niger, and the almost equally unknown city of Tombuctoo, which have terminated in the premature loss of the accomplished travellers by whom they were undertaken, (names consecrated in the memories of

those who honour science and its votaries,) we are sorry to add Mr. Ritchie; who was appointed by the British government to conduct the mission of which Captain Lyon has published the account now before us. He was an amiable and able young man, and would have been in every respect qualified for the expedition, had he been gifted with a stronger constitution: but his health was too delicate to sustain the burning sun of Africa, and the intolerable privations of a journey over the desert; and it is to this circumstance that we must attribute his unfortunate omission to take notes, or to mix in intercourse with the natives, without which the African traveller will collect but a scanty stock of information.

Captain Lyon was serving (as a lieutenant) in the Mediterranean, when Mr. Ritchie arrived at Malta. Anxious to visit Africa, he volunteered to accompany that gentleman on his expedition; and his offer having been accepted, and the requisite leave obtained from the Admiralty, he joined Mr. R. at Tripoli, in November, 1818. It happened that Mukni, the Bey of Fezzan, a sort of political dependent on the court of Tripoli, was at the same time preparing to set out for Morzouk, the capital of his province; and under his protection, by the recommendation of the Tripoline prince, (who appears to be peculiarly friendly in his dispositions towards the English,) Mr. R.'s perilous expedition was to be commenced. 'With so powerful and friendly an ally,' says the author, 'we of course felt perfect security and confidence that all his flattering professions would be realized on our arriving in the kingdom of Fezzán.'

Of the city of Tripoli, Capt. L. does not affect to give any minute account; and indeed, after the interesting letters of Mrs. Tully, such a description would have been almost superfluous: but, having now assumed the costume of Tripoli, he was present at an annual festival of a most extraordinary tribe of fanatics, called Marāboots. They are of two classes: ideots, who say and do whatever they please; and men who, by juggling and imposture, have obtained the exclusive right 'of being the greatest rogues and nuisances to be met with.' During their festival, while these wretches are parading about the streets, no Christian or Jew can safely make his appearance.

'As I was in the dress of the country,' says the author, 'and very anxious to witness the whole of the ceremonies, I ventured to go out with our Dragoman, and to make my way to the mosque from which the procession was to set out. I certainly felt that my situation was a very dangerous one; but being resolved on the attempt, and telling the man to follow me closely, I dashed in with the crowd, and succeeded in getting near the
Saints,

Saints, who, with dishevelled hair, were rapidly turning round, and working themselves into a most alarming state of frenzy. A band of barbarous music was playing to them, while several men were constantly employed in sprinkling them with rose-water. Had I been discovered, my life would have been in very great jeopardy; but fortunately I was able to keep my countenance, and to pass unnoticed; and when the performers were sufficiently inspired, sallied out with them, and followed through the streets. One had a large nail run through his face from one cheek to the other; and all had bitten their tongues in so violent a manner as to cause blood and saliva to flow copiously. They were half naked, at intervals uttering short groans and howls; and as they proceeded (sometimes three or four abreast leaning on each other), they threw their heads backwards and forwards with a quick motion, which caused the blood to rise in their faces, and their eyes to project from the sockets to a frightful degree. Their long black hair, which grew from the crown of the head (the other parts being closely shaven) was continually waving to and fro, owing to the motion of the head. One or two, who were the most furious, and who continually attempted to run at the crowd, were held by a man on each side, by means of a rope, or a handkerchief tied round the middle. As we passed through one of the streets, a party of Maltese and other Christians were discovered on a terrace, and were instantly assailed by showers of stones. I observed that whenever the Maraboots passed the house of a Christian, they affected to be ungovernable, and endeavoured to get near it, pretending they made the discovery by smelling out Unbelievers.

Considerable delay took place in Mukni's preparations. During this interval, Mr. Ritchie and his party made a short excursion to Beniroleed, over the Gharian mountains; and Captain Lyon collected on this journey many interesting details respecting the domestic economy of the Arabs, among which the most curious is his description of the subterranean villages or nests of caves inhabited by the Gharian tribes. A person unacquainted with the circumstance might cross the mountain without the slightest suspicion that it was the haunt of man, all the habitations being below the surface. The upper soil is sand, and under this a large hole about twelve yards square is dug, to the depth of twenty-five feet; at the bottom of which are excavations into the perpendicular sides of the rock, according to the number and size of the families that are to lodge there. The only entrance is by a sloping passage, which is about thirty-six yards from the area, and opens above ground, rudely arched, and secured by a heavy door. Their sheep and poultry are driven into this asylum at night, and the Pasha's army (the present author invariably spells the word Bashaw) had recourse to the humane expedient

of suffocating the inmates, being unable to starve them out. About eight years ago, the Pasha of Tripoli commenced a hot attack on these unfortunate mountaineers; and, being in small parties, they fell an easy prey to their invaders, who as usual gave them no quarter, all the prisoners having their throats cut on being taken. When the poor wretches were suffocated in their subterranean caves, as already mentioned, it is said that the Pasha returned in triumph to Tripoli with twelve camel-loads of heads! Yet this abominable wretch has not unfrequently been highly eulogized, and by British travellers. The fact is, however, that he is less sanguinary than the despots of Tunis and Algiers; and, though he waded up to his knees in blood, and obtained his power by the assassination of his brother, these are trifles for a Turk, and for a Turk he is considered as a good sort of man.

At last, on the 22d March, 1819, Mukni was ready. The kaffé (caravan) consisted of about 200 men, with the same number of camels; and it was joined by several small parties of liberated negroes, who were delighted with the idea of returning to their native land, though with slender means of subsistence for so long an expedition. Several of the women with their young children had to walk a distance of two thousand miles over a stony desert, exposed to misery and privation of every kind.

Voltaire describes the *το καλον* of the toad; and the African notion of beauty is little better, for to be very fat is with them to be very beautiful. Captain L. gives this account of his interview with the fat wife of Sheikh Barood, the chief manager of Mukni's affairs:

‘On my entrance she so veiled herself as to exhibit to advantage her arm, with all its gay ornaments; and on my requesting to be favoured with a view of her face, she, with very little reluctance, gratified me. Her chin, the tip of her nose, and the space between her eyebrows, were marked with black lines; she was much rouged; her neck, arms, and legs, were covered with tattooed flowers, open hands, circles, the names of God, and of her numerous male friends. She had a multitude of gold earrings and ornaments, set with very bad and counterfeit jewels, and weighing all together, I should think, two or three pounds. Her shirt was of striped silk; and she had a rich purple silk berracan, or mantle, gracefully thrown round her, and fastened at the breast by a gold pin, with ornaments of the same metal suspended from it: all the other articles of finery which she possessed were displayed round the tent, whilst a multitude of poor thin wretches, resembling witches, sat round her in astonishment, never having in their lives seen such a paragon of perfection.

Like all other Arabs, they touched whatever pleased them most, one admiring this object, another something near it, so that our poor belle was sometimes poked by a dozen fingers at once; all, however, agreeing on one point, that she was beautifully and necessarily fat, and I must say I never before beheld such a monstrous mass of human flesh. One of her legs, of enormous size, was uncovered as high as the calf, and every one pressed it, admiring its solidity, and praising God for blessing them with such a sight. I was received most graciously, and invited to sit close to her, when one of the first questions she asked me was, if in my country the ladies were as fat and handsome as herself? For the plumpness of my countrywomen, I owned, with shame, that I never had seen one possessed of half such an admirable rotundity, which she took as a great compliment; but I did not attempt to carry the comparison farther, though she was really very handsome in face and features. She amused herself while speaking with playing on a kind of drum, made of clay, called *Derbooka*, *derbooka*, by beating with one hand, and playing with the fingers of the other; and perceiving that I was amused by it, she ordered an old man to get up and dance. The females sang and clapped their hands in good time, and the dance went through a variety of figures, all equally indelicate. A woman then succeeded him, and in this respect quite threw him in the shade: but as I knew it to be the general mode of dancing in this part of Barbary, I of course applauded it. Lilla Fatma herself then thought proper to honour us with a few graceful attitudes in the same style; but Mr. Ritchie's entrance into the tent soon put a stop to the exhibition, and the ceremony of veiling took place in the same manner as before. Fatma soon discovered a likeness between her late husband and Mr. Ritchie, from their being both very slender; but unfortunately the resemblance failed in all other points, her former spouse being, at the time she was obliged to leave him by an order of the Bashaw, fifty years old, with a grey beard; while, on the other hand, Mr. Ritchie was but twenty-seven, and of a very fair complexion. She was at all events determined to be pleased with us; and having sprinkled us with rose-water, allowed us to take our leave. On returning to our tent, we sent her some coffee, and a few lumps of sugar.

Human imagination can scarcely conceive a country more sterile and hideous than that which the author and his party now had to traverse. It presented not a tint of verdure, but now and then a *wadey* (valley) with a little patch of cultivation. On a stony plain, destitute alike of food and of water for their camels, they encountered one of those dreadful *sirocs* which blow from the east or south-east across the desert; raising such storms of sand, that it was impossible to see twenty yards before them.

Boekna stands on an immense plain of gravel; bounded to the south by the Soudah mountains, at about fifteen miles; by the

mountains of Wadan about thirty miles to the eastward ; a distant range to the west ; and those I have already mentioned on passing through to the north. The town is walled, and may contain 2000 persons : more than half the people we saw this day were from Hoon and Wadan. There are small projections from the walls, having loop-holes for musketry. It has seven gates, only one of which will admit a loaded camel. The streets are very narrow, and the houses are built of mud and small stones mixed, many of them having a story above the ground floor. A small court is open in the centre ; and the windows, or more properly the doors, which open from this area, give the only light which the rooms receive. The water of Sockna is almost all brackish or bitter. There are 200,000 date trees in the immediate neighbourhood of the town, which pay duty ; also an equal number, not yet come into bearing, which are exempt. These dates grow in a belt of sand, at about two or three miles distant from the town, and are of a quality far superior to any produced in the north of Africa.

The caravan left Sockna on the 22d of April, and proceeded over the Soudah mountains to a plain covered with white gravel ; presenting so perfect an horizon all round, that an astronomical observation might have been taken, as at sea. Such was the dryness of the air, also, that the blankets and barracans emitted electric sparks. — At Sebha, all the male population came out to salute the Sultan, for such is Mukni's title in Fezzan. The colour of the people here was that of Mulattoes. — On the 4th of May the kafflé entered Mourzouk with much turbulent pomp and noisy ceremony, where a large house within the outward boundary of the town had been prepared for the travellers ; and they were visited by a number of people, who had been induced to believe that they were great men and had 30,000 dollars with them ; ' whereas,' says Captain Lyon, ' we had only 300, which were in Mukni's hands, and knew not now to procure more.' — They had been 39 days on their march from Tripoli.

' Our travelling pace was a walk of the horses, which generally got considerably in advance of the camels. At noon, or about that time, if we could find a tree, we stopped under it ; if not, we sat under the shadow of our horses. The Sultan was grand victualler, and generally produced a bag of bread or dates, or the remains of his dinner of the day before. Each one then had a portion, not sufficient to be called a dinner, but to break his fast ; and after eating and drinking a few mouthfuls of water, stretched himself out, and slept until the camels came up : the party then mounted and rode on. These rests were very refreshing to the men and horses ; but the loaded camels never made any stop ; neither did the poor Negroes, who, with their wives and even little children, plodded on the whole day, over a burning soil, sometimes for twenty, and often for sixteen hours, whenever want of water

water made a forced march necessary. Several of the smallest of the black children, though probably not more than four or five years of age, walked for many hours with great strength in the early part of the day, having but a few rags to cover them, and when unable to proceed further, were put on the camels for the remainder of the day. One of our party, a poor old man, totally blind, arrived safe at Morzouk from Tripoli. He had walked all the way over the rocks and plains, led by his wife, and was kept alive by the hope of once more hearing the voices of his countrymen.

When we stopped for the night, it was generally so contrived that we should lie in some spot where bushes might be found for the camels to browse upon; but even though there might be no wood or herbage, a wadey was always preferred, as more sheltered. Our tents were pitched, if the ground was sufficiently soft to admit the pegs, and our bales and chests so placed as to form a shelter for those who had no tents; affording a bulwark against the wind and sand. The little resistance offered by any intervening objects to the winds of the desert renders them very powerful, and the stillness of the night, in blowing weather, is particularly awful. The tents are no sooner pitched, than the camels are turned out to feed on the thin and scattered bushes, and parties go to collect wood; the horses are hobbled, watered from the skins, and then fed. Should there be no wood, camels' dung is an excellent substitute, as it burns like peat, and forms a very glowing fire. A hole is dug in the ground, and three stones so placed as to support the little copper pot. Cusscussou or Bazeen is then prepared. The Sultanesses are no contemptible cooks, and they made every evening an excellent supper for their master. When no fire is to be had, Zumeeta is prepared with water and oil, and so eaten. We usually managed, in an evening, to make a little coffee, of which Mukni always came and partook; and as soon as he left the tent, his slaves and people generally succeeded him, wishing also to taste some. If we had time, we occasionally drank a cup of it in the morning fasting, which we found; in the most sultry weather, prevented thirst. I observed, that we never required water if we abstained from eating in the early part of the day, and I thus account for the Arabs drinking so little: on the contrary, if any quantity of water is taken on an empty stomach, the person who indulges in it suffers great thirst for the remainder of the day. When hot, it is much better to drink from the palm of the hand, which prevents the possibility of taking too great a draught at once. It is very refreshing, after a long day's journey, to be well oiled all over; and a wet cloth applied to the back of the neck relieves the fulness of the head, after being many hours exposed to the sun. — Horses should not be brought near the wells until it is their turn to drink; if they are kept in sight of the water, without being able to reach it, they frequently become furious, and many of them greedily devour the mud.

The water is generally carried on camels set apart for that purpose, and having no other loads. The usual quantity is six gerbas, or water-skins, three on each side, one slung above the

other. Each of these skins is about fifty pounds in weight when full. Should the kafilé expect to be four or five days without finding water, every camel which carries goods has, in addition to its load, a skin on each side. In fact, horses generally occasion more trouble to a caravan than any thing else. The immense quantity of water necessary to be taken for them is always averaged at one camel for each horse, not including other loads of corn or dates for their food.

Morzouk is a walled town, and contains about 2500 negro inhabitants. The castle, where Mukni resides, is an immense mud-building, rising to the height of 90 feet, but the apartments are small. The best are those which are occupied by the Sultan, and which have the advantage of being white-washed, as well as ornamentally daubed with blotches of red paint. The women have small rooms round a large court, where they grind corn, cook, and perform other domestic offices. 'There are on the whole about 50 young women, all black and very comely; guarded by five eunuchs, who keep up their authority by occasionally beating them.'—The following passage presents a striking picture of the sufferings which a traveller in Africa must undergo:

'May 15th. — I was attacked with severe dysentery, which confined me to my bed during twenty-two days, and reduced me to the last extremity. Our little party was at this time miserably poor, for we had only money sufficient for the purchase of corn to keep us alive, and never tasted meat, unless fortunate enough to kill a pigeon in the gardens. My illness was the first break up in our little community, and from that time it rarely happened that one or two of us were not confined to our beds. The extreme saltiness of the water, the poor quality of our food, together with the excessive heat and dryness of the climate, long retarded my recovery; and when it did take place, it was looked on as a miracle by those who had seen me in my worst state, and who thought it impossible for me to survive. I was no sooner convalescent, than Mr. Ritchie fell ill, and was confined to his bed with an attack of bilious fever, accompanied with delirium, and great pain in his back and kidneys, for which he required repeated cupping. When a little recovered, he got up for two days, but his disorder soon returned with redoubled and alarming violence. He rejected every thing but water; and, excepting about three hours in the afternoon, remained either constantly asleep, or in a delirious state. Even had he been capable of taking food, we had not the power of purchasing any which could nourish or refresh him. Our money was now all expended, and the Sultan's treacherous plans to distress us, which daily became too apparent, were so well arranged, that we could not find any one to buy our goods. For six entire weeks we were without animal food, subsisting on a very scanty portion of corn and dates. Our horses were mere skeletons,

skeletons; added to which Belford (Mr. B.'s attendant) became totally deaf, and so emaciated as to be unable to walk. My situation was now such as to create the most gloomy apprehensions; for I reflected that, if my two companions were to die, which there was every reason to apprehend, I had no money with which to bury them, or to support myself; and must in that case have actually perished from want, in a land of comparative plenty. My naturally sanguine mind, however, and above all, my firm reliance in that Power which had so mercifully protected me on so many trying occasions, prevented my giving way to despondency; and, Belford beginning soon to rally a little, we united, and took turns in nursing and attending on our poor companion. At this time, having no servant, we performed for Mr. Ritchie and for ourselves the most menial offices, Mr. Ritchie being wholly unable to assist himself.

The heat was now excessive, being 108° of Fahrenheit; and it was also the time of Rhamadan, the great fast, during which the travellers were obliged to eat by stealth: for such is the bigotry of the Mohammedans, that even to swallow the saliva at this time is deemed wicked. Every day their situation became more uncomfortable, and Mukni never gave them the slightest assistance; for in fact it was evident that he wished them all to die, in order to appropriate their effects to his own use. On one occasion, indeed, Mr. Ritchie, being destitute of money and provisions, ventured to ask him for a small supply; when he answered as usual in a friendly manner, assuring them in the name of God that he had not, in consequence of the Pasha's exactions, a single dollar remaining: though, while he made this protestation, he was leaning against a chest which was known to contain 4000. Yet even in this desolate region, where the common sentiments of the human mind seem to be extinct in every bosom, the forlorn visitors were cheered with the consolations of friendship, and a kind-hearted Mameluke supplied them with thirty dollars. If at this day any persons could be incredulous of the actual horrors of the slave-trade, the ensuing passage would force a melancholy conviction on their hearts:

At the end of this month, a large kaffé of Arabs, Tripolines, and Tibboo, arrived from Bornou, bringing with them 1400 slaves of both sexes and of all ages, the greater part being females. Several smaller parties had preceded them, many of whom also brought slaves. We rode out to meet the great kaffé, and to see them enter the town—it was indeed a piteous spectacle! These poor oppressed beings were, many of them, so exhausted as to be scarcely able to walk; their legs and feet were much swelled, and by their enormous size formed a striking contrast with their emaciated bodies. They were all borne down with loads of firewood; and even poor little children, worn to skeletons by fatigue and

and hardships, were obliged to bear their burthen, while many of their inhuman masters rode on camels, with the dreaded whip suspended from their wrists, with which they, from time to time, enforced obedience from these wretched captives. Care was taken, however, that the hair of the females should be arranged in nice order, and that their bodies should be well oiled, whilst the males were closely shaven, to give them a good appearance on entering the town. Their dresses were simply the usual cotton wrappers, and even these, in many instances, were so torn, as scarcely to cover them. —

‘ All the traders speak of slaves as farmers do of cattle. Those recently brought from the interior were fattening, in order that they might be able to go on to Tripoli, Benghazi, or Egypt : thus a distance of 1600 or 1800 miles is to be traversed, from the time these poor creatures are taken from their homes, before they can be settled ; whilst in the interior they may, perhaps, be doomed to pass through the hands of eight or ten masters, who treat them well or ill, according to their pleasure. These devoted victims, fondly hoping that each new purchaser may be the last, find perhaps that they have again to commence a journey equally long and dreary with the one they have just finished, under a burning sun, with new companions, but with the same miseries.’

From the traders who frequented Morzouk from various parts of Africa, the author was indefatigable in procuring information concerning the interior : but all the accounts which he received of the Tsād were so contradictory, that it became impossible to draw any positive inference from them. At last, the nephew of the Kadi, who had just arrived, furnished him with this statement :

‘ “ The Tsād is not a river, but an immense lake, into which many streams discharge themselves after the summer rains. It is then, for some months, of such extent, that the opposite shores cannot be seen, and the people catch many fish, and go about on it in boats. In the early part of the spring, when the great heats come on, it soon changes its appearance, and dries up, with the exception of a small rill. This streamlet, which runs through the centre of its bed, is called by the same name, and comes from the westward, taking an easterly direction ; but to what place he knows not.”

‘ All the inhabitants of the villages on the borders of the lake go out and sow corn and esculent vegetables, which come to maturity, and are gathered in before the rainy season, as in Egypt, after the flowing of the Nile, which he has seen. He had himself observed the people getting in their harvest on the same ground which he had, only a few months before, known to be covered with water.

‘ The rivers which, he says, flow into the lake after the rains, appear to be torrents from the mountains, as he never observed more than the small stream I have mentioned in the dry season.

‘ The

'The Tsād is also called the Gatabarro after it quits Birnie, and even there it is as frequently called the Nil.'

Among the natives, a remarkable unanimity prevails as to the identity of the Niger and the Nile of Egypt.

'The Nil, Goulbi, Joliba or Kattagum, runs from Tembucoo, through Melli in the country of the Fellata; thence to Kebbi, which is three days north of Nooffy: past this place or country, it runs to Yaowri, which is seven days east; from thence to Fendah, a Fellata country S.W. of Kashna, which latter kingdom it passes at thirteen days south of the capital. It again makes its appearance at Kattagum, four days W.S.W. of the capital of Bornou, where it runs into a lake, called the Tsaad. Beyond this lake, a large river runs through Baghermee, and is called the Gatabarro and Kamadakoo; the word Nil being also used for the same stream.— Thus far are we able to trace the Nil, and all other accounts are merely conjectural. All agree, however, that by one route or other, these waters join the great Nile of Egypt, to the southward of Dongola.'

Of Tombuctoo, Timbuctoo, or Tembucoo, as it is here spelt, Captain L. obtained from the same sources many curious particulars. It is distant 90 days' march from Morzouk, but is not so large a town as it has been imagined; and the native merchants, whom the Captain consulted, account for the extravagant estimate of its population thus. The caravans from different places of the interior remain there during the rainy season, or till their goods are sold, and are therefore obliged to build huts or houses, which are erected in a few days; and thus 10,000 or 15,000 inhabitants may in the course of a month be added to the population.

No tidings could be learnt of Mr. Park: but the supposition that he had been or was still confined by the Sultan, on account of his skill in surgery, the people maintained to be unfounded; because they said that it would be quite impossible for him or any other white man to be detained there unknown to the traders, who enter every house, not excepting that of the Sultan himself.

Poor Ritchie's malady now rapidly gained ground. Captain Lyon also was severely attacked with a liver-complaint; and Belford, an Englishman from the dock-yard of Malta, who was one of this unfortunate party, was so emaciated as to be unable to walk. On the 20th of November, Mr. Ritchie expired.

'Having performed the last sad duties to our unfortunate friend, we returned home to pass a day of misery. It was necessary to distribute food to the poor who surrounded our door in great numbers, and we had no money even to purchase a morsel for ourselves;

ourselves; Yussuf's kindness again having supplied our wants, I succeeded in getting the house a little more quiet. Within an hour after the funeral had taken place, a courier arrived from Tripoli bringing a truly welcome letter, announcing that a further allowance of 1000*l.* had been made by our government towards the expense of the mission. Had this letter reached us a little sooner, many of our troubles and distresses would have been prevented.

Captain L. now found himself under the necessity of returning to England; for, although the additional grant of 1000*l.* could easily have been converted into money at Tripoli, this measure would have rendered a journey thither necessary, and after all it would have been insufficient to carry him through Africa. Under these circumstances, the mission became abortive with regard to its primary objects, and Capt. Lyon could only resolve on a short progress into the interior.

Here, perhaps, we ought to remark that it appears to be the opinion of those by whom the expedition was planned, and by whom Mr. Ritchie was appointed to the conduct of it, that he ought to have set off from Tripoli six weeks sooner. This delay was occasioned by the injudicious measure of waiting for Mukni, and of stopping at Mourzouk, a town which is perhaps the unhealthiest part of Fezzan: the mean temperature at two P. M. being frequently, for six or seven months, from 106° to 133°. It seems agreed that they should have proceeded without delay to Bornou, so as to have arrived in that province about the period of the tropical rains, which render the air cool and pleasant, and produce an abundance of vegetable food.

It may be useful to future travellers through these uninviting regions to be told, on the present writer's authority, that the adoption of the Moorish costume was by no means a sufficient safeguard either at Tripoli or Morzouk, or in the African interior; and that Mr. Ritchie and his companions found it requisite also to conform to all the duties of the Mohammedan religion.

'The circumstance of our having come from a Christian country, which we always acknowledged, frequently rendered us liable to suspicion: but by attending constantly at the established prayers, and occasionally acknowledging the divine mission of Mohammed, or, more properly, by repeating "There is no God but God, Mohammed is his Prophet," we were enabled to overcome all doubts respecting our faith.

'In attending the mosque we found that it was not necessary for us to use any prayers addressed to, or in praise of, Mohammed; the three which are recited by day being in an under voice, and the morning and evening ones only being repeated aloud.

loud. These latter we easily avoided, and during the others we made use of what orisons we pleased, only taking particular care that our prostrations and outward observances should be at the proper times. The only prayer we ever recited audibly was the "Fatha," or first chapter of the Koran, the sentiments of which are really beautiful.

Captain L. and Belford set out on the 14th of December, under the Sultan's teskera (order), on a journey to the southward, through Traghan and Zuela to the eastward. The former place is celebrated for its springs; and several people left their work to accompany the strangers to these springs, which were the pride of Fezzan, that they might enjoy the surprise and admiration of those who now first saw them. They consisted, however, merely of four ponds, 30 or 40 feet in diameter, covered with a green crust, and containing innumerable frogs. — At Zuela, the latitude of which by solar observation is $26^{\circ} 11' 48''$, a town containing three good mosques and three gates, Captain L. was attended 'by an idiot, who took,' he says, 'a particular fancy to me; and my reputation as a good man became established in consequence, it having been invariably remarked that he never distinguished any person by his notice who was not deserving of it.' — At a wretched mud-village called Terboo, where every human being appeared wasted to a skeleton by poverty and wretchedness, the author observed at the gate a blacksmith with his forge, and found that he was preparing to perform a surgical operation for a diseased liver, by burning the side of the patient with a red hot iron.

Tegerry is the southern limit of Fezzan, and here the cultivation of the palm ceases, but the dates are excellent. The latitude of this town is $24^{\circ} 4' N.$, and it is the resting-place of kaffés from Bornou and Soudan. The substitutes for corn here are gaphooly (a species of corn) and barley. At Gatrone, Captain Lyon met the Ghrazzie, a band of slave-hunters, with Mukni's eldest son at their head, and amounting to 100 horsemen and 400 infantry. Their booty consisted of 800 lean cripples, between 2000 and 3000 maherries (a lighter variety of the camel), and 500 asses. They had been six months absent, and had over-run the country of the Tibboo; whom the author describes as an inoffensive race, inhabiting houses of palm-leaf mats, subsisting on dates, and the flesh of goats and camels, but, according to the Arab accounts, unacquainted with marriage, their women being in common, and having no knowledge of a God. 'One or two of these people being questioned by Captain Lyon, they admitted that there

was a great Spirit, but laughed when asked where he was to be found.

'The plan adopted by the Arabs in taking these people is described in the following manner:—They rest for the night, two or three hours' ride from the village intended to be attacked; and after midnight, leaving their tents and camels with a small guard, they advance, so as to arrive by daylight; they then surround the place, and, closing in, generally succeed in taking all the inhabitants. As those who elude the first range have also to pass several bodies placed on the look-out, and armed with guns, their chance of escape is almost impossible. On a rising ground, at a convenient distance, is placed a standard, round which are stationed men prepared to receive and bind the captives, as they are brought out by those who enter the town: when bound, the pillagers return for fresh plunder. In the course of one morning, a thousand or fifteen hundred slaves have sometimes been procured in this manner, by two or three hundred men only. When the inhabitants are all secured, the camels, flocks, and provisions, come into requisition; and these dreaded Arabs march on and conquer other defenceless hordes, in the same manner.'

The young Tibboo girls are described as of agile and elegant forms, and of a lighter complexion than other negroes. The men have intelligent features, but are too slight in their structure to be of high value in the slave-market. These people are dispersed over Bornou, Waday, Borgoo, and the southern parts of Fezzan.

Who can avoid a shudder at the recital of the circumstances attending the arrival of the Ghrazzie at Morzouk?

'The square near the Castle presented quite a novel appearance, being filled with above 1000 Maherries. The town was all alive, and formed a very amusing spectacle. Merchants from neighbouring countries, Tibboo, Tuarick, Arabs, and camels, were all in motion at once, while the poor negroes, who occasioned the assemblage of so many strangers, sat naked and shivering in the sun, and were oiled all over to better their appearance. Some were paraded for sale, whilst others went about with broken pots to collect the blood of the numerous camels, which people were slaughtering, and which, on being baked over a fire, they eagerly swallowed. Such skeletons as were seen amongst them might really have moved the pity even of their owners. Slaves were selling as low as ever, and the market was full: a fine girl of thirteen years of age was worth about thirty-five dollars; a boy of the same age about fifteen or twenty; occasionally the price was greater for the females, if particularly handsome; but boys seldom rose higher than the sum I have mentioned.'

About this time I frequently visited the slave-markets, which are conducted with the same degree of indifference to the feelings of the captives as at Tripoli. There are many auctioneers, as

well for slaves as for other articles of trade; each runs from side to side of the street, crying in a shrill voice the price last bidden, and standing on tiptoes: should he be selling a slave, the poor creature follows him at a trot, like a dog, to the different groups of merchants who are sitting on the sand.

Our intelligent traveller, during his sojourn at Morzouk and his journey to the extremity of Fezzan, collected many curious particulars, for which we must refer our readers to his book. Among the notices with which it abounds of the natives of these desolate countries, we must particularly mention his description of the Tuarick, who inhabit some of the oases of the desert.

Having thus extracted from Captain Lyon's unaffected but impressive narrative such topics as we conceived might convey novel and interesting information, we must conclude our article as we began it, with sincere commendations of the zeal and perseverance with which he prosecuted his enterprize, and of the fidelity and simplicity with which he has recorded it. We have perused the volume, however, with mixed sensations. The sufferings of one part of our unhappy species whose lot has been cast in those unblest regions, contrasted with the brutality and ferocious ignorance of the other, raised, as we turned over its pages, alternate horror and commiseration in our bosoms. Yet we console ourselves, not in the affected cant of optimism, but with a rational confidence in the gradual amelioration of human things, that a series is proceeding, which, beginning with the civilization of the negro-tribes, may terminate in the triumph of humanity and virtue over the multiplied difficulties which for the present impede its progress. If so delightful a consummation may be expected, we repeat that it can proceed only from the amelioration of the negro-states, by cultivating among them the arts of peace, and imparting to them the advantages of commercial intercourse. Our opinion is not built on a frail foundation, for it is supported by those who are most competent to speak on the subject; and, among these, we conceive that it derives no slight confirmation from the concurring sentiment of the most virtuous and enlightened of African travellers, the amiable and lamented Burckhardt.

ART. II. *Specimens of the Russian Poets*, with Preliminary Remarks, and Biographical Notices. Translated by John Bowring, F. L. S. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Hunter. 1821.

UNTIL the appearance of this little volume, we confess we were not aware that Russia had made such progress in the cultivation of poetical talent as is here displayed; and to find

find a wreath of such blooming and fragrant flowers amid the perpetual snows of the north is peculiarly gratifying. Indeed, when we advance in our reflections from the mere pleasure of the discovery to its remoter consequences, we cannot but attach very considerable interest to the present publication; since we are far from sharing in the contemptuous and (we may add) ignorant appreciation of the value of poetry, in a national point of view, which occasioned the degrading remark of the treasurer of Elizabeth, respecting the reward bestowed on one even of her greatest poets. At the same time, perhaps, we do not, on the other hand, quite agree with the romantic Scotchman who would have been satisfied with writing the ballads of his country, whoever made the laws; nor do we attach implicit credit to the stories of the foundation of Thebes by the music of Amphion, or of the patience and taste infused into the brute creation by the strains of Orpheus. Still we have no record of the infancy and gradual civilization of states, either in the old or the new world, which does not bear testimony to the material effect of poetry in softening the rude manners of the early inhabitants, and in preparing the way for the restraints of morals as well as of laws. Poetry is, confessedly, more than the ornament of society: it is one important element of the education of the human mind; and for ever will it have a great and visible influence on the formation of national character.

If all this be true, and if it receives confirmation from the fact of those nations making but a lingering progress in the arts of politeness and the refinements of social intercourse, who have been deficient in the production of popular songs and poems, we cannot hesitate to express a wish that our northern friends and relations in the new world would present us with an *American Anthology*, in any degree equal to that which has been here gathered among the frosts of Russia. Till this be done, we may refer our readers who are desirous of knowing something of the present state of trans-Atlantic poetry to our Review for November, 1820, p. 297., where we have given a summary view of it as far as our acquaintance with the subject enabled us to speak.

It is difficult indeed to rate too highly the importance of any diffusive means of civilization in the vast empire of the north. If, as it seems too probable, that empire is destined to increase in consolidated power as well as in extent, — if the fates of Europe, in a great measure, are not only connected with her own but in some degree suspended on them, — it must be of the last consequence to the happiness of the most civilized portion of the world, to find such an empire improv-

ing in the arts of peace; and above all other arts, in that which has the most decided influence in ameliorating the dispositions, and refining the manners, of those who direct the energies of armed millions: — nay, with due progress of improvement, in rescuing those millions themselves from the character of mere military machines, and endowing them with the thousand sympathies that belong to the heart of cultivated man. Hand in hand with Religion, and assisted and encouraged by good government, (to whose support, and to the lightening of whose burden, it may in turn lend the most material aid,) Poetry can hardly be estimated too precious as the instrument of civil good; and we venture to cherish the pleasing dream that, in process of time, when the principles of rational liberty are better understood and more extensively diffused over social life, Poetry also will be seen as the uniform attendant on the peaceful virtues: not decorating the blood-stained car of the conqueror with laurels, but recommending, and rendering delightful, the wholesome restraints of free and happy forms of government.

In a very well-written introduction, the translator of the compositions before us has given us much information concerning the progress of poetry in Russia. We quote his opening paragraph.

‘When the subject of this volume occupied my attention, my plan was an extensive one. I designed to write a general history of Russian literature. It seemed a most interesting object to trace the progress of letters in a country which had emerged, as it were instantaneously, from a night of barbarism, to occupy a situation in the world of intellect, not contemptible, even when compared with that of southern nations; but singularly striking as contrasted with the almost universal ignorance which pervaded the immense empire of the Tzars before Peter the Great gave it the first impulse towards civilization. That purpose I have not wholly abandoned; but I have deemed it desirable, as a prior step, to publish a few translations of the poetry of a people, the political influence of whose government on the rest of Europe has been long moving with gigantic strides, and will soon be more sensibly felt. If they are deemed deserving of attention, some desire will perhaps be excited to know more about their authors; but should these specimens be considered worthless, little curiosity can be felt to ascertain how, and when, and by whom they were written.’

We can assure Mr. Bowring, with great pleasure, that we see no chance whatever of his work being undervalued, in its general importance and success, by any person of sufficient intellect and taste to judge of its merits. We encourage him most warmly, therefore, to proceed in his ‘extensive plan,’ and to favour the English reader with a ‘general history of

Russian literature.' Of the Russian language he seems the critic as well as the translator. Meanwhile, we must be contented with what we are here taught. — To enable our readers to judge of the sort of information conveyed in Mr. Bowring's introduction, and still farther extended in his useful appendix, we shall quote a passage or two, which contain sketches of several distinguished Russian poets. After having mentioned Lomonosov*, 'whose works have been collected in six volumes,' — Somorokov his jealous rival, — Von Visin, 'who has made Moliere his model,' — and 'Kheraskov, who holds a high rank among the lyric poets of Russia,' — Mr. B. thus proceeds :

' But of all the poets of Russia, Derzhavin is in my conception entitled to the very first place. His compositions breathe a high and sublime spirit ; they are full of inspiration. His versification is sonorous, original, characteristic ; his subjects generally such as allowed him to give full scope to his ardent imagination and lofty conceptions. Of modern poets, he most resembles Klopstock : his *Oda Bog*, Ode on God, with the exception of some of the wonderful passages of the Old Testament, "written with a pen of fire," and glowing with the brightness of heaven, passages of which Derzhavin has frequently availed himself, is one of the most impressive and sublime addresses I am acquainted with, on a subject so pre-eminently impressive and sublime. The first poem which excited the public attention to him was his *Felizia*.

' Bogdanovich has obtained the title of the Russian Anacreon. His *Dushenka* (Psyche) is a graceful and lovely poem. He has also written several dramatic pieces.

' Bobrov was well acquainted with the literature of the south of Europe, and has transfused many of its beauties into his native tongue. Our English writers especially have given great assistance to his honest plagiarism. His *Khersonida*, an oriental epic poem, is not so good as *Lalla Rookh*, but it is very good notwithstanding.

' The name of Kostrov closes the list of the most eminent among the deceased poets of Russia. He died, not long ago, in the meridian of his days. He had made an admirable translation of Homer, and was engaged in a version of Ossian, which he left unfinished : the conclusion has since been added by Gnedich.'

Among the living writers, (perhaps among all the writers of Russia,) Karamsin holds the highest place. Mr. Bowring's account of him is interesting, but we cannot here insert it, and can only allude to his 'History of Russia,' which, according to Mr. B., is 'the first and best literary work' ever produced 'in the country which it celebrates.' We rejoice to hear that

* The father of Russian poetry, Lomonosov, or *Broken Nose!* an inauspicious title ! — " *minùs aptus acutis Naribus.*"

'such a man 'has been loaded with honours and distinctions;' and we augur well for the future amelioration of a government, which has the sense and spirit thus to patronize literature. Let us not be ominously reminded of the days of Augustus, and of the Decline and Fall of Rome so soon subsequent to that period; the prophets of ill should remember the difference between a Christian and a Heathen state; and let us imbibe a reasonable confidence of better results, however threatening the prospect may be in some quarters at present.

We go on with the account of living Russian authors.

'The peculiar excellence of the Russian fabulists has been mentioned. Somorokov and Khemnitzer, Dmitriev and Krilov, are the most distinguished among them. Dmitriev, who is still living at Moscow, has published a great number of fables and ballads. His style is easy, harmonious, and energetic; some of his compositions have a sublimer character; his religious poetry is dignified and solemn; his elegies are tender and affecting.

'Krilov holds an office in the imperial library at Petersburg. He is well known to the *bons vivans* of the English club. His heavy and unwieldy appearance is singularly contrasted with the shrewdness and the grace of his writings. He has published one volume of fables, remarkable for their spirit and originality. He now employs himself in translating Herodotus, having, at an advanced period of life, first entered on the study of the languages of ancient Greece and Rome.

'Zhukovskij has printed some poetical translations of peculiar excellence. His *Liudmilla* (an imitation of Leonora) is deemed more beautiful and forcible than the original itself. Bürger appears to have captivated him. He has written on a variety of subjects, and is now engaged as a companion to the Grand Dukes.

'I believe Batiushkov is now in Italy. His most celebrated composition is his Address to his Penates, which will be found in the present volume. As it introduces in a very agreeable manner the most eminent of the Russian poets, and contains some allusion to Russian manners, it will not, I hope, be without interest to the English reader.'

We shall present that reader with an extract from the poem in question:—but we must begin with the Ode to the Deity by Derzhavin.

GOD.

O Thou eternal One! whose presence bright
All space doth occupy, all motion guide;
Unchanged through time's all-devastating flight;
Thou only God! There is no God beside!

Being

* This is the poem of which Golovnin says in his narrative, that it has been translated into Japanese, by order of the emperor, and

Being above all beings ! Mighty One !
 Whom none can comprehend and none explore ;
 Who fill'st existence with *Thyself* alone :
 Embracing all, — supporting, — ruling o'er, —
 Being whom we call God — and know no more !

In its sublime research, philosophy
 May measure out the ocean-deep — may count
 The sands or the sun's rays — but, God ! for Thee
 There is no weight nor measure : — none can mount
 Up to Thy mysteries ; Reason's brightest spark,
 Though kindled by thy light, in vain would try
 To trace Thy counsels, infinite and dark :
 And thought is lost ere thought can soar so high,
 Even like past moments in eternity.

Thou from primeval nothingness didst call
 First chaos, then existence ; — Lord ! on Thee
 Eternity had its foundation : — all
 Sprung forth from Thee : — of light, joy, harmony,
 Sole origin : — all life, all beauty Thine.
 Thy word created all, and doth create ;
 Thy splendor fills all space with rays divine.
 Thou art, and wert, and shalt be ! Glorious ! Great !
 Light-giving, life-sustaining Potentate !

Thy chains the unmeasured universe surround :
 Upheld by Thee, by Thee inspired with breath !
 Thou the beginning with the end hast bound,
 And beautifully mingled life and death !
 As sparks mount upwards from the fiery blaze,
 So suns are born, so worlds spring forth from Thee ;
 And as the spangles in the sunny rays
 Shine round the silver snow, the pageantry
 Of heaven's bright army glitters in Thy praise. *

is hung up, embroidered with gold, in the Temple of Jeddo. I learn from the *periodicals*, that an honour something similar has been done in China to the same poem. It has been translated into the Chinese and Tartar languages, written on a piece of rich silk, and suspended in the imperial palace at Peking.

There is in the first verse a variation from the original, which does not accord with my views of the perfections of the Deity.

* The force of this simile can hardly be imagined by those who have never witnessed the sun shining, with unclouded splendor, in a cold of twenty or thirty degrees of Reaumur. A thousand and ten thousand sparkling stars of ice, brighter than the brightest diamond, play on the surface of the frozen snow ; and the slightest breeze sets myriads of icy atoms in motion, whose glancing light, and beautiful rainbow-hues, dazzle and weary the eye.

‘ A mil-

' A million torches lighted by Thy hand.
 Wander unwearied through the blue abyss :
 They own Thy power, accomplish Thy command
 All gay with life, all eloquent with bliss.
 What shall we call them ? Piles of crystal light—
 A glorious company of golden streams —
 Lamps of celestial ether burning bright —
 Suns lighting systems with their joyous beams ?
 But Thou to these art as the noon to night.'

We cannot be insensible to the deep and awful strain of piety which breathes in this effusion : but we are obliged to judge the translator, in one instance, out of his own mouth, and to remind him that whatever *his* notions of the 'perfections of the Deity' may be, he was bound to give those of *Derzhavin* ; and this general truth becomes of more peculiar application and force, when, according to the translator's "own showing," the poem is hung up in the temple of Jeddo as a sort of confession of Russian Faith. We hope that Mr. Bowring will remember what we have said, and weigh it well, before he conceives himself at liberty to make any such important alterations of the original in his future versions, which we trust will be numerous.

In a fine poem by Derzhavin, intitled 'The Waterfall,' tributes worthy of their military genius and peculiar characters are here paid to the fame of Romanzov and of Potemkin. We receive the following stanzas with especial gratification (for the reasons given at the beginning of this article) from a Russian poet:

' Happy, if always combating for right
 When combating with glory : happy he
 Whose sword knew mercy in the bloodiest fight,
 His shield an *Ægis* for an enemy.
 Centuries to come shall celebrate his fame,
 And ' Friend of Man ' shall be his noblest name.

' Dear let his memory be, and proud his grave !
 And this his epitaph : — " He lived, he fought
 For truth and wisdom : foremost of the brave,
 Him glory's idle glances dazzled not ;
 'Twas his ambition, generous and great,
 A life to life's great end to consecrate ! "

" O glory ! glory ! mighty one on earth !
 How justly imaged in this waterfall !
 So wild and furious in thy sparkling birth,
 Dashing thy torrents down, and dazzling all ;
 Sublimely breaking from thy glorious height,
 Majestic, thundering, beautiful and bright..

- ‘ How many a wondering eye is turned to thee,
In admiration lost ; — short-sighted men !
Thy furious wave gives no fertility ;
Thy waters, hurrying fiercely through the plain,
Bring nought but devastation and distress,
And leave the flowery vale a wilderness.
- ‘ O fairer, lovelier is the modest rill,
Watering with steps serene the field, the grove —
Its gentle voice as sweet and soft and still
As shepherd’s pipe, or song of youthful love.
It has no *thundering* torrent, but it flows
Unwearied, scattering blessings as it goes.
- ‘ To the wild mountain let the wanderer come,
And, resting on the turf, look round and see,
With sadden’d eye, the green and grassy tomb,
And hear its monitory language : he —
He sleeps below, not famed in war alone ;
The great, the good, the generous-minded one.’

Can we resist the temptation of transcribing also the two subjoined stanzas ?

- ‘ When the sun sinks at evening’s calmest close,
Love sorrowfully sits : the breeze of spring
Across the melancholy harp-strings blows,
And spreads around its deep notes sorrowing :
Sighs from his bosom burst, and tears are shed
Upon the sleeping hero’s sculptured bed.
- ‘ And ere the morning gilds the distant hill
And o’er the golden tomb the sunbeams play ;
While yet the wild deer sleeps ; and night winds shrill,
Wind round the mountains there ; the old man gray
Hangs o’er the monument in secret gloom,
And reads, “ Potemkin’s consecrated tomb ! ”’

Let us now turn to a lighter style ; to the pleasing, natural, and touching lines of Batiushkov, addressed

‘ TO MY PENATES.

- ‘ Fatherland Penates ! come,
Kind protectors of my home !
Not in gold or jewels rich —
Can ye love your simple shrine ?
Smile, then, sweetly from your niche
On this lowly hut of mine.
Thus removed from worldly care,
I, a wearied wanderer,
In this silent corner here,
Offer no ambitious prayer.
Here, if ye consent to dwell,
Happiness shall court my cell.

Kind

Kind and courteous ever prove,
Beaming on me light and love!
Not with streams of fragrant wine,
Not with incense smoking high,
Does the poet seek your shrine—
His is mild devotion's sigh,
Grateful tears, the still soft fire
Of feeling heart : and sweetest strains,
Inspired by the Aonian quire.
O Lares ! in my dwelling rest,
Smile on the poet where he reigns,
And sure the poet shall be blest.
Come, survey my dwelling o'er ;
I'll describe it if I'm able :
In the window stands a table,
Three-legged, tott'ring, with a cover,
Gay some centuries ago,
Ragged, bare, and faded now.
In a corner, lost to fame,
To honour lost, the blunted sword
(That relic of my fathers' name)
Harmless hangs, by rust devoured.
Here are pillaged authors laid —
There, a hard and creaking bed :
Broken, crumbling, argile-ware,
Furniture strewed here and there.
And these in higher love I hold
Than sofas rich with silk and gold,
Or china vases gay and fair.
Kind Penates ! thus I pray —
O may wealth and vanity
Never hither find their way,
Never here admitted be !
Let the vile, the slavish soul,
Let the sons of pomp and pride,
Fortune's spoilt ones, turn aside ;
Not on them nor theirs I call !
Tottering beggar ! hither come,
Thou art bidden to my home :
Throw thy useless crutch away ;
Come — be welcome and be gay !
Warmth and rest thy limbs require,
Stretch thee by my cheerful fire :
Reverend teacher ! old and hoary,
Thou whom years and toils have taught,
Who with many a storm hast fought,
Storms of time and storms of glory !
Take thy merry balalaika *,

* The balalaika is a two-sided musical instrument, of which the Russian peasants are extremely fond.

Sing thy struggles o'er again;
 In the battle's bloody plain,
 Where thou swungst the rude nagaika*;
 Midst the cannon's thunder roar,
 Midst the sabres clashing o'er;
 Trumpets sounding, banners flying
 O'er the dead and o'er the dying,
 While thy never-wearied blade
 Foes on foes in darkness laid.
 And thou, Lisette! at evening steal,
 Through the shadow-cover'd vale,
 To this soft and sweet retreat;
 Steal, my nymph, on silent feet.
 Let a brother's hat disguise
 Thy golden locks, thy azure eyes;
 O'er thee be my mantle thrown,
 Bind my warlike sabre on:
 When the treacherous day is o'er,
 Knock, fair maiden, at my door;
 Enter then, thou soldier sweet!
 Throw thy mantle at my feet;
 Let thy curls, so brightly glowing,
 On thy ivory shoulders flowing,
 Be unbound: thy lily breast
 Heave, no more with robes opprest!
 "Thou enchantress! is it so?
 Sweetest, softest shepherdess!
 Art thou really come to bless
 With thy smiles my cottage now?"
 O her snowy hands are pressing
 Warmly, wildly pressing mine!
 Mine her rosy lips are blessing,
 Sweet as incense from the shrine,
 Sweet as zephyr's breath divine
 Gently murmuring through the bough;
 Even so she whispers now:
 "O my heart's friend, I am thine;
 Mine, beloved one! art thou"
 What a privileged being he,
 Who in life's obscurity,
 Underneath a roof of thatch,
 Till the morning dawns above,
 Sweetly sleeps, while angels watch
 In the arms of holy love!

Surely this is very pretty; and, as the former poem, 'The Waterfall' of Derzhavin, reminds us of the far-famed and frequently translated elegy of Gray, at humble distance, so

* The nagaika is a hard thong used by the Cossacks to flog their horses; but sometimes employed as a weapon of warlike attack.

does this little work in several passages suggest the idea of a happy imitation of the moral tenderness of Horace, in some of his most reflective odes. Of Goldsmith, too, (that is, of CLASSICS, old and new,) we are occasionally reminded. We would trust that these, and such as these, will continue to be the mirrors of literary fashion in which Russia dresses herself; and that she will not be drawn aside by any of the Gothic propensities of her German neighbours, or wander into the still ruder Scandinavian excentricities which may be natural to her. Let her wild fruit be grafted on a more regular stock. If she is led astray by an Ossianic furor, (so curious yet so common in Europe!) her flame will evaporate in smoke; and she will only become the rival of those "many men, many women, and many children," who are so capable of publishing new and enlarged editions of the poems of the tuneful son of Fingal. We deem this hint necessary, because, though Mr. Bowring has too much sense to "believe in *all* the unbelief" of Ossian's authenticity, he seems yet disposed to over-rate the merits of particular passages either of the true or the pseudo poet; and not unlikely to foster, by his translations, the already existing Russian bias in favour of the Caledonian extravagancies.

Some of the shorter pieces of this volume are happy enough; and, when we recollect whence they come, it is pleasing indeed to think of Grecian plants growing under a Sarmatian sky.*

‘ KOSTROV. — *The Vow.*

‘ The rose is my favourite flower :
On its tablets of crimson I swore,
That up to my last living hour
I never would think of thee more.

‘ I scarcely the record had made,
Ere Zephyr, in frolicsome play,
On his light, airy pinions convey’d
Both tablet and promise away.

Again,

‘ DMITRIEV. — *Over the Grave of Bogdanovich,*

‘ Author of the beautiful poem *Psyche*—

‘ Here Love unseen, when sinks the evening sun,
all Wets the cold urn with tears, and mournful thinks,
buc h While his sad spirit, sorrow-broken, sinks,—
oe cnd None now can sing my angel *Psyche* — none!

* It would be premature, perhaps, to say any thing on the subject of Grecian LIBERTY surviving Russian assistance against the Turks: — but "*felix faustumque sit.*"

Of

Of all the minor pieces, however, we think that the following, by Zhukovsky, is the most striking; although we are duly sensible of the merit of the imitation of the 'Αἰ, αἰ ται μαλακαὶ of Moschus, and the "*Soles occidere et redire possunt*" of Catullus, by Karamsin.

' *The Mariner.*

- ' Rudderless my shattered bark,
Driven by wild fatality,
Hurries through the tempest dark,
O'er the immeasurable sea.
Yet one star the clouds shines through;
Little star! shine on, I pray;
O that star is vanished too —
My last anchor breaks away.
- ' Gloomy mists the horizon bound,
Furiously the waters roar:
Frightful gulfs are yawning round,
Fearful crags along the shore.
Then I cried in wild despair,
"Earth and heaven abandon me."
Fool! the heavenly pilot there
May thy silent helmsman be.
- ' Through the dark, the madden'd waves,
O'er the dangerous craggy bed;
Midst the night-envelop'd graves,
Lo! I was in safety led
By the unseen guardian hand:
Darkness gone, and calm the air,
And I stood on Eden's land;
Three sweet angels hailed me there!
- ' Everlasting fount of love!
Now will I confide in Thee:
Kneeling midst the joys above
Thy resplendent face I see:
Who can paint Thee, fair and bright,
Thy soul-gladdening beauty tell?
Midst heaven's music and heaven's light,
Purity ineffable!
- ' O unutterable joy!
In Thy light to breathe, to be;
Strength and heart and soul employ,
O my God, in loving Thee.
Though my path were dark and drear,
Holiest visions round me rise;
Stars of hope are smiling there,
Smiling down from Paradise.'

We

We add, from Bogdanovich, a '*Song from the Old Russian?*'

Hark ! those tones of music stealing
Through yon wood at even :
Sweetest songs that breathe a feeling
Pure and bright as heaven.
Nightingales in chorus near thee,
All their notes are blending ;
Then they stop their songs to hear thee,
Silent — unpretending.

Here we must close our "elegant extracts" from the "Russian anthology;" — aware that we have left many blossoms untouched, and full of sweetness.

With regard to *imitation*, we must add that this is a subject of peculiar consequence in its bearing on Russian literature. It is testified by all authentic accounts of that country, and recorded by all observant travellers in the course of conversation, that no people are more prone to *imitation*, or more successful in any species of it, than the Russian. It is even thought that the usual quantity of the mimetic powers of man is exceeded in that country; and that, of all lands in an early state of civilization, this northern empire is the most disposed and most able to *imitate* its more polished neighbours. If so, it becomes indeed of tenfold importance to give such a natural power a right direction; and, while the Russian excels most of his modern competitors in the acquisition of languages, not to suffer his taste (as far as such things *can* be prevented) to receive a wrong bias. Above all, he should be initiated from his early youth so deeply in the classical mysteries, as to secure his contempt for more vulgar orgies. The Emperor's determination "*to have an Oxford*," when he went back to Russia, is very cheering. "*Qui rore puro Castaliae lavat crines solutos*" will not endure to see his "locks dropping odours, dropping beer!"; or to join in the bacchanalian chorus of his metaphysical but often muddy and maudlin allies, singing "Eyne Bootle, trine Bootle, Bootle, Bootle Beer," on the banks of Rhene or Danaw. — Let not, in one word, the newly awakened energies of a mighty nation be misled into inferior subjects of *imitation*, of any kind whatever. If indeed they are *doomed* (for hard, ultimately, is the *doom*!) to conquer like Romans in their growing empire, let them at least strive to write like Greeks in their growing literature; and all of Grecian origin and character that they can adopt, protect, and extend, may every prosperous omen sanctify!

ART. III. *Journal of a Voyage for the Discovery of a North-West Passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific; performed in the Years 1819, 1820, in His Majesty's Ships Hecla and Griper, under the Orders of William Edward Parry, R. N. F. R. S., and Commander of the Expedition. With an Appendix, containing the Scientific and other Observations. Published by Authority of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. 4to. pp. 510. and Twenty Plates and Charts. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1821.*

ART. IV. *A Journal of a Voyage of Discovery to the Arctic Regions, in His Majesty's Ships Hecla and Griper, in the Years 1819 and 1820. By Alexander Fisher, Surgeon, R. N. Third Edition. 8vo. pp. 321. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.*

ART. V. *The North Georgia Gazette, and Winter Chronicle. 4to. pp. 140. 10s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1821.*

THE object, importance, and partial success, of the enterprise to which these titles refer are now familiar to the public. Before we endeavoured to sketch the outlines of its progress and notice its main results, we were desirous of including within the scope of our report the substance of those communications in natural history to which it gave rise, and the appearance of which, as supplementary to Capt. Parry's Journal, was announced for the first of June last; but these long-expected documents have not yet found their way from the press; and, even *our* meek patience being quite exhausted, we have finally determined to wait no longer.

As the doubtful issue of the expedition conducted by Capt. Ross, in the year 1818, induced our government to persevere in attempting to discover a north-west passage from the Atlantic into the Pacific, Capt. R.'s associate on that occasion, Lieut. Parry, (since promoted to the rank of a Commander,) was appointed in January, 1819, to make a fresh trial; having under his orders the Hecla and Griper, the former a bomb, of 375 tons, and from her construction admirably fitted for the purpose, and the latter originally a gun-brig, of 180 tons, commanded by Lieut. Liddon. These vessels were officered, manned, equipped, and furnished in a style highly creditable to all who were concerned, and eminently adapted to the nature of the service for which they were destined. The details are distinctly stated by Capt. Parry in his introduction; and they strongly and agreeably impress us with the conviction, that a happy combination of judgment and humanity presided over the previous arrangements. The instructions, too, a copy of which is prefixed to the work, bespeak the same spirit of clear conception and masterly views relative to the primary and secondary objects of the expedition, the same

same zeal for the promotion of scientific discovery, and the same untiring solicitude for the safety and comfort of the individuals employed in conducting it, which have characterized all our recent projects of a similar description.

Having been detained by contrary winds, the vessels were, on the 4th of May, 1819, separately towed down to the North-fleet buoy by the Eclipse steam-boat; thus avoiding the risk of turning down the river with a head-wind, and affording an earnest of the future service of steam in various exigencies of our ships of war. On the 10th, they finally got under weigh; when it was quickly perceived that the Hecla would outstrip her consort in sailing, and be frequently obliged to take her in tow. On the 20th, they rounded the northern point of the Orkneys; and, on the evening of the 21st, they descried the islands of Bara and Rona, which, according to Mr. Fisher, are usually reckoned *the northernmost land in Europe*: — a computation, however, which does not exactly tally with that of the profound Guthrie, in his Geographical Grammar. In this latitude, the first sealed bottle, containing a memorandum in different languages of the date, the ship's reckoning, &c., accompanied by a request that the finder would forward it with all convenient despatch to the British Admiralty, was consigned to the waves; and one at least was afterward thrown out daily during the voyage, except when the ships were beset in the ice. The recovery of more than one of these roaming messengers, sent off in the course of the former expedition, sufficiently shews the advantage of frequently trying their fate.

It is of importance to observe that, near the spot where Lieut. Pickersgill obtained soundings in 1776, no bottom could now be found with one thousand and twenty fathoms of line; and that the far-famed *sunken land of Bus*, so distinctly *laid down* in Steele's chart, either never existed or has now subsided beyond the reach of human investigation.

In lat. $55^{\circ} 01'$, and long. $35^{\circ} 56'$, the temperature of the sea, at the depth of 250 fathoms, was found to be $44\frac{1}{2}$, while that at the surface was only $44\frac{1}{4}$.

This leads me, says Mr. Fisher, to mention a singular, and to me rather an unaccountable difference in this respect, that occurred to the two expeditions employed last year in the Arctic regions, which is, that we found the temperature of the sea at every depth, and on every occasion where it was tried, to be less than that of the surface at the time; and the expedition to Spitzbergen found it always the reverse; that is to say, the temperature at the surface always less than at the bottom, or at any

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considerable depth where it was tried. Can this difference be owing to the greater thickness of the ice at Spitzbergen, which throughout the whole summer prevents the solar rays from warming but a very small portion of the surface of the sea; whilst, on the contrary, the greatest part of the surface of the water in Davis's Straits, and Baffin's Bay, is exposed to the influence of the sun for the most part of the summer?

On the 15th of June, the land about Cape Farewell, was discerned at the distance of more than forty leagues, precisely at a time when the humidity of the atmosphere increased its transparency. Three days afterward, and, in lat. $59^{\circ} 40'$, long. $47^{\circ} 46'$, the brown tinge of the water, and the sight of several ice-bergs, denoted the approach of the voyagers to the frozen regions; and, from the 25th to the 30th the ships were immovably beset, and could not be disengaged without considerable risk, after eight hours of incessant labour. — On the 3d of July, they crossed the Arctic circle; and, from the 17th of the same month to the end of the voyage, snow-water was exclusively used for every purpose on board the ships, without producing any of the inconveniences which some navigators seem erroneously to have attributed to it. In their progress through streams and bergs of ice, in Baffin's Bay, Capt. Parry and his associates encountered frequent and formidable obstacles: but, under the guidance of prudence, intrepidity, and ceaseless vigilance, they surmounted all difficulties without sustaining any material injury. Much of the narrative, indeed, is unavoidably occupied with the daily minutes of the two vessels struggling through half or wholly congealed seas, and of the nautical and physical observations which were at the same time conducted by the officers, either at sea or on shore, as often as opportunities occurred: — but, while the re-iteration and monotony of such recitals induce us to mention them in this general manner, we are aware that every discerning reader will duly estimate their value both to the professional navigator and to the natural philosopher.

At length, our adventurers found themselves within Lancaster Sound, on the 29th of July. 'We now seemed all at once,' says Capt. Parry, 'to have got into the quarters of the whales. They were so numerous that I directed the number to be counted, during each watch, and no less than eighty-two are mentioned in this day's log. Mr. Allison, the Greenland master, considered them generally as large ones, and remarked that a fleet of whalers might easily have obtained a cargo here in a few days. It is, I believe, a common idea among the Greenland fishermen, that the presence of

ice is necessary to ensure the finding of whales; but we had no ice in sight to day, when they were most numerous.' — On Possession Mount was found the flag-staff which had been erected in the course of the former expedition; and Mr. Fisher even ascertained that the tracks of human feet, which at first so agreeably surprized him, were the marks of their own shoes, made eleven months before. As they ran up Lancaster Sound, and appearances rather indicated the probability of a free passage, every individual looked forwards to the issue with anxious expectation; and on the 4th of August, they had already advanced nearly three degrees beyond the region in which land was reported to have been seen the year before. Here one important point of discussion was fairly put to rest.

Since the time we first entered Sir James Lancaster's Sound, the sluggishness of the compasses, as well as the amount of their irregularity produced by the attraction of the ship's iron, had been found very rapidly, though uniformly, to increase, as we proceeded to the westward; so much, indeed, that, for the last two days, we had been under the necessity of giving up altogether the usual observations for determining the variation of the needle on board the ships. This irregularity became more and more obvious as we now advanced to the southward. The rough magnetic bearing of the sun at noon, or at midnight, or when on the prime vertical, as compared with its true azimuth, was sufficient to render this increasing inefficiency of the compass quite apparent. For example, at noon this day, while we were observing the meridian altitude, the bearing of the sun was two points on the Hecla's larboard bow, and consequently her true course was about S. S. W. The binnacle and azimuth compasses at the same time agreed in shewing N. N. W. $\frac{1}{2}$ W., making the variation to be allowed on that course eleven points and a half westerly, corresponding nearly with an azimuth taken on the following morning, which gave $137^{\circ} 12'$. It was evident, therefore, that a very material change had taken place in the dip, or the variation, or in both these phenomena, since we had last an opportunity of obtaining observations upon them; which rendered it not improbable that we were now making a very near approach to the magnetic pole. This supposition was further strengthened on the morning of the 7th; when, having decreased our latitude to about 73° , we found that no alteration whatever in the absolute course on which the Hecla was steering produced a change of more than three or four points in the direction indicated by the compass, which continued uniformly from N. N. E. to N. N. W., according as the ship's head was placed on one side or the other of the magnetic meridian. We now, therefore, witnessed, for the first time, the curious phenomenon of the directive power of the needle becoming so weak as to be completely overcome by the attraction of the ship; so that the needle might now be properly said to point to the north pole of the ship.

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It was only, however, in those compasses in which the lightness of the cards, and great delicacy in the suspension, had been particularly attended to, that even this degree of uniformity prevailed; for, in the heavier cards, the friction upon the points of suspension was much too great to be overcome even by the ship's attraction, and they consequently remained indifferently in any position in which they happened to be placed. For the purposes of navigation, therefore, the compasses were from this time no longer consulted; and in a few days afterwards, the binnacles were removed as useless lumber, from the deck to the carpenter's store-room, where they remained during the rest of the season, the azimuth compass alone being kept on deck, for the purpose of watching any changes which might take place in the directive power of the needle; and the *true* courses and direction of the wind were in future noted in the log-book, as obtained to the nearest quarter point, when the sun was visible, by the azimuth of that object and the apparent time.

The striking fact here recorded, though perhaps unexpected by many, is quite in unison with some recent speculations on the position of the magnetic poles.

The prevalence of snowy weather, and the recurrence of immense quantities of ice, again retarded the progress of the expedition, and afforded ample leisure to give names to bays, hills, promontories, &c. as they slowly passed in review. On other occasions, a *lucid interval* of unobstructed water, and the springing up of a breeze, enabled the ships to proceed more rapidly. At different places where parties landed, they casually encountered traces of polar bears, foxes, rein-deer, or musk-oxen, or saw the animals themselves. The remains of the rude huts or encampments of Esquimaux were observed in six different spots, but never the semblance of a human being. The rocks, which are very imperfectly described, appear to have exhibited granite, sand-stone, and lime-stone, in more or less extensive masses, or strata: but it is to be hoped that some distinct light will be thrown on the 'dark mountains,' in the forthcoming portion of the Appendix.

On the 4th of September, one object of the expedition was fortunately accomplished; namely, the passing of the meridian of 110° west of Greenwich, in a latitude which intitled the crews to the sum of 5000*l.*, under the sanction of a late act of parliament. This grateful event was officially announced by the Commander, who availed himself of the opportunity to exhort his followers to persevere in their strenuous exertions.

In the course of a few days after this occurrence, Mr. Fife and a small party from the Griper, who had been sent on shore to kill game, unfortunately missed their way back to the ships, and suffered much fatigue and exhaustion from the inclemency

inclemency of the weather. Their protracted absence naturally excited much painful anxiety on board; and recourse was had to every expedient which prudence could dictate, in order to enable them to retrace their steps. Capt. Parry relates the particulars with simplicity and feeling: but the passage is too long for our insertion; and we must be contented to state that, after having endured, during three nights, the first severe cold that was experienced during the voyage, the party was brought on board, many of them with their extremities much affected by the frost: but, in consequence of the skilful attentions of the medical gentlemen, they were in a few days fit to return to their duty. The following night proved so intensely cold, that, had they been exposed to it in their then reduced and debilitated condition, there is no probability that they could have survived it. — A narrow escape from a more portentous calamity is thus recorded:

‘We now seemed to have got rather within the drift of the main body of ice, which passed us to the westward at the rate of two miles an hour; but, at length, the point of a large field, which had hitherto not approached the shore nearer than two or three hundred yards, was observed to be rapidly nearing us. Immediately to the westward of the spot where the Hecla's anchor had been dropped, some very heavy ice, which, for distinction's sake, we called a berg, projected from the beach to the distance of a hundred and fifty yards. The ships had fortunately been forced by the ice, one on each side of this projecting point; for at eight P. M. the field came in contact with it with a tremendous crash, piling up the enormous fragments of ice in the most awful and terrific manner; this seemed to break, in some degree, the force with which the ice had been driving; a force which may almost be considered incalculable, as we could not see over the field in motion from our mast-head. We were at this time within a hundred yards of the point, and had, therefore, great reason to be thankful for having escaped being carried into a situation in which no human power or skill could have saved the ships from instant destruction.’

Two days afterward, the Griper was driven on shore by the pressure of the ice, but got off without any serious injury. Her commander, though labouring under a violent rheumatic affection, refused to leave her, and remained on deck, giving the necessary orders. It was now, however, found impracticable to persist in a westerly course, on account of the advanced period of the season, the rapid formation of ice, and the dangers which in every direction beset the vessels; and Capt. Parry, after having advised with his officers, determined to retrograde to some fit station for winter-quarters. Indeed, the delay of a few days more might have been attended with the most fatal consequences, as they had much difficulty in regaining

regaining Fisher's Harbour in Melville Island, where they had so recently touched; and their entrance into this dreary but secure retreat was not effected without the most laborious and spirited exertions.

As soon as our people had breakfasted I proceeded, with a small party of men, to sound, and to mark with boarding-pikes upon the ice the most direct channel we could find to the anchorage, having left directions for every other officer and man in both ships to be employed in cutting the canal. This operation was performed by first marking out two parallel lines, distant from each other a little more than the breadth of the larger ship. Along each of these lines a cut was then made with an ice-saw, and others again at right angles to them, at intervals of from ten to twenty feet; thus dividing the ice into a number of rectangular pieces, which it was again necessary to subdivide diagonally, in order to give room for their being floated out of the canal. On returning from the upper part of the harbour, where I had marked out what appeared to be the best situation for our winter-quarters, I found that considerable progress had been made in cutting the canal, and in floating the pieces out of it. To facilitate the latter part of the process, the seamen, who are always fond of doing things in their own way, took advantage of a fresh northerly breeze, by setting some boats' sails upon the pieces of ice, a contrivance which saved both time and labour. This part of the operation, however, was by far the most troublesome, principally on account of the quantity of young ice which formed in the canal, and especially about the entrance, where, before sun-set, it had become so thick that a passage could no longer be found for the detached pieces, without considerable trouble in breaking it. At half-past seven P. M. we weighed our anchors, and began to warp up the canal, but the northerly wind blew so fresh, and the people were so much fatigued, having been almost constantly at work for nineteen hours, that it was midnight before we reached the termination of our first day's labour. While we were thus employed, about nine o'clock, a vivid flash of light was observed, exactly like lightning. There was at the same time, and during the greater part of the night, a permanent brightness in the northern quarter of the heavens, which was probably occasioned by the *Aurora Borealis*. I directed half a pound of fresh meat per man to be issued, as an extra allowance; and this was continued daily till the completion of our present undertaking.

Saturday, Sept. 25. — All hands were again set to work on the morning of the 25th, when it was proposed to sink the pieces of ice, as they were cut, under the floe, instead of floating them out, the latter mode having now become impracticable on account of the lower part of the canal, through which the ships had passed, being hard frozen during the night. To effect this, it was necessary for a certain number of men to stand upon one end of the piece of ice which it was intended to sink, while other parties, hauling at the same time upon ropes attached to the opposite end, dragged

dragged the block under that part of the floor on which the people stood. The officers of both ships took the lead in this employ, several of them standing up to their knees in water frequently during the day, with the thermometer generally at 12° , and never higher than 16° . At six P.M. we began to move the ships. The Griper was made fast astern of the Hecla, and the two ships' companies being divided on each bank of the canal, with ropes from the Hecla's gangways, soon drew the ships along to the end of our second day's work.

Sunday, 26. — I should, on every account, have been glad to make this a day of rest to the officers and men; but the rapidity with which the ice increased in thickness, in proportion as the general temperature of the atmosphere diminished, would have rendered a day's delay of serious importance. I ordered the work, therefore, to be continued at the usual time in the morning; and such was the spirited and cheerful manner in which this order was complied with, as well as the skill which had now been acquired in the art of sawing and sinking the ice, that, although the thermometer was at 6° in the morning, and rose no higher than 9° during the day, we had completed the canal at noon, having effected more in four hours than on either of the two preceding days. The whole length of this canal was four thousand and eighty-two yards, or nearly two miles and one-third, and the average thickness of the ice was seven inches.

At half-past one P.M. we began to track the ships along in the same manner as before, and at a quarter past three we reached our winter-quarters, and hailed the event with three loud and hearty cheers from both ships' companies. The ships were in five fathoms' water, a cable's length from the beach on the north-western side of the harbour, to which I gave the name of Winter Harbour; and I called the group of islands which we had discovered in the Polar Sea New Georgia; but having afterwards recollected that this name is already occupied in another part of the world, I deemed it expedient to change it to that of the North Georgian Islands, in honour of our gracious sovereign George the Third, whose whole reign had been so eminently distinguished by the extension and improvement of geographical and nautical knowledge; and for the prosecution of new and important discoveries in both.

We have now to change the scene, and to contemplate the ships dismantled and housed over; the leader of the expedition directing his intelligent mind, and feeling heart, to the adoption of such measures as he conceived to be best calculated to ensure a continuance of good health and spirits to all under his charge, during a tedious term of confinement, under the pressure of almost unparalleled cold, and on a desert and dismal shore, remote from all those objects which cheer and adorn the existence of our species. No sooner were the vessels and their appurtenances properly secured, than a

few simple but excellent regulations were promulgated for the maintenance of cleanliness, health, and comfort among the crews. The occasional exhibition of theatrical performances by the officers, to which all the men were admitted, and the institution of a weekly newspaper, likewise eminently contributed to keep alive good humour among all ranks, and to prevent the mind from stagnating in listlessness, or sinking in despondency.

A marine, belonging to one of the first of the parties sent on shore, in consequence of having neglected his mittens and of returning late, had his hands severely frost-bitten, and very nearly lapsed into that sleep of death which is induced by exposure to excessive cold. When brought on board, he exhibited every appearance of intoxication, the rigour of the atmosphere having depressed the mental, as well as the corporeal faculties. This effect of a very reduced temperature has been less noticed than it deserves; and it suggests to Capt. Parry the reflection that individuals may have been punished for inebriety, when they were only suffering from the benumbing influence of cold. A very low temperature, as indicated by the thermometer in calm weather, was much more supportable to the feelings, than one that was considerably higher if accompanied by wind. It was in fact generally experienced that an increase of wind, from whatever quarter, was attended by a simultaneous and considerable rise in the thermometer.

Owing to the cloudy state of the sky, the sun was not visible on the 4th of November, when it fell below the horizon of an observer on Melville Island, and was not expected to re-appear before the 8th of February. Mr. Fisher particularly notices that, on the 29th of November, the mercury employed by some of the officers for an artificial horizon was, on four hours' exposure to the temperature of 86° below zero, congealed into a solid mass: a fact for which he can account only by supposing that it had become amalgamated with the lead of the trough. About the middle of December, the bottles of lemon-juice began to congeal; and much of this valuable article was destroyed, or rendered nearly inefficient, in the course of the winter. Had both it and the vinegar been concentrated, they might possibly have been preserved, and might have been used in a diluted state as circumstances seemed to require. On the 21st of December the twilight at noon was still sufficient to enable a person on the ice to read the smallest type, by facing the book to the south. — The winter-solstice found our enterprising countrymen daily occupied in the discharge of their duties, and cheered by the reflection that one half of their darksome duration had already passed.

passed. On this occasion, Capt. Parry thus traces the outline of their Arctic day:

The officers and quarter-masters were divided into four watches, which were regularly kept, as at sea, while the remainder of the ship's company were allowed to enjoy their night's rest undisturbed. The hands were turned up at a quarter before six, and both decks were well rubbed with stones and warm sand before eight o'clock, at which time, as usual at sea, both officers and men went to breakfast. Three-quarters of an hour being allowed after breakfast for the men to prepare themselves for muster, we then beat to divisions punctually at a quarter past nine, when every person on board attended on the quarter-deck, and a strict inspection of the men took place, as to their personal cleanliness, and the good condition, as well as sufficient warmth, of their clothing. The reports of the officers having been made to me, the people were then allowed to walk about, or, more usually, to run round the upper deck, while I went down to examine the state of that below, accompanied by Lieutenant Beechey and Mr. Edwards, the surgeon. The state of this deck may be said, indeed, to have constituted the chief source of our anxiety, and to have occupied by far the greatest share of our attention at this period. Whenever any dampness appeared, or, what more frequently happened, any accumulation of ice had taken place during the preceding night, the necessary means were immediately adopted for removing it; in the former case usually by rubbing the wood with cloths, and then directing the warm air-pipe towards the place; and in the latter, by scraping off the ice, so as to prevent its wetting the deck by any accidental increase of temperature. In this respect the bed-places were particularly troublesome; the inner partition, or that next the ship's side, being almost invariably covered with more or less dampness or ice, according to the temperature of the deck during the preceding night. This inconvenience might to a great degree have been avoided, by a sufficient quantity of fuel to keep up two good fires on the lower deck, throughout the twenty-four hours; but our stock of coals would by no means permit this, bearing in mind the possibility of our spending a second winter within the Arctic circle; and this comfort could only, therefore, be allowed on a few occasions, during the most severe part of the winter.

In the course of my examination of the lower deck, I had always an opportunity of seeing those few men who were on the sick list, and of receiving from Mr. Edwards a report of their respective cases; as also of consulting that gentleman as to the means of improving the warmth, ventilation, and general comfort of the inhabited parts of the ship. Having performed this duty, we returned to the upper deck, where I personally inspected the men; after which they were sent out to walk on shore when the weather would permit, till noon, when they returned on board to their dinner. When the day was too inclement for them to take this exercise, they were ordered to run round and round the deck,

keeping step to a tune on the organ, or, not unfrequently, to a song of their own singing. Among the men were a few who did not at first quite like this systematic mode of taking exercise; but when they found that no plea, except that of illness, was admitted as an excuse, they not only willingly and cheerfully complied, but made it the occasion of much humour and frolic among themselves.

The officers, who dined at two o'clock, were also in the habit of occupying one or two hours in the middle of the day in rambling on shore, even in our darkest period, except when a fresh wind and a heavy snow-drift confined them within the housing of the ships. It may be well imagined that, at this period, there was but little to be met with in our walks on shore, which could either amuse or interest us. The necessity of not exceeding the limited distance of one or two miles, lest a snow-drift, which often rises very suddenly, should prevent our return, added considerably to the dull and tedious monotony which, day after day, presented itself. To the southward was the sea, covered with one unbroken surface of ice, uniform in its dazzling whiteness, except that, in some parts, a few hummocks were seen thrown up somewhat above the general level. — Nor did the land offer much greater variety, being almost entirely covered with snow, except here and there a brown patch of bare ground in some exposed situations, where the wind had not allowed the snow to remain. When viewed from the summit of the neighbouring hills, on one of those calm and clear days which not unfrequently occurred during the winter, the scene was such as to induce contemplations which had, perhaps, more of melancholy than of any other feeling. Not an object was to be seen on which the eye could long rest with pleasure, unless when directed to the spot where the ships lay; and where our little colony was planted. The smoke which there issued from the several fires, affording a certain indication of the presence of man, gave a partial cheerfulness to this part of the prospect; and the sound of voices which, during the cold weather, could be heard at a much greater distance than usual, served now and then to break the silence which reigned around us: a silence far different from that peaceable composure which characterizes the landscape of a cultivated country; it was the death-like stillness of the most dreary desolation; and the total absence of animated existence. Such, indeed, was the want of objects to afford relief to the eye or amusement to the mind, that a stone of more than usual size appearing above the snow, in the direction in which we were going, immediately became a mark, on which our eyes were unconsciously fixed, and towards which we mechanically advanced.

Dreary as such a scene must necessarily be, it could not, however, be said to be wholly wanting in interest, especially when associated in the mind with the peculiarity of our situation; the object which had brought us hither, and the hopes which the least sanguine among us sometimes entertained, of spending a part of our next winter in the more genial climate of the South-Sea islands. Perhaps, too, though none of us then ventured to confess it, our

thoughts would sometimes involuntarily wander homewards, and institute a comparison between the rugged face of nature in this desolate region, and the livelier aspect of the happy land which we had left behind us.

We had frequent occasion, in our walks on shore, to remark the deception which takes place in estimating the distance and magnitude of objects, when viewed over an unvaried surface of snow. It was not uncommon for us to direct our steps towards what we took to be a large mass of stone, at the distance of half a mile from us, but which we were able to take up in our hands after one minute's walk. This was more particularly the case, when ascending the brow of a hill, nor did we find that the deception became less on account of the frequency with which we experienced its effects.

In the afternoon, the men were usually occupied in drawing and knotting yarns, and in making points and gaskets; a never-failing resource, where more occupation is required, and which it was necessary to perform entirely on the lower deck, the yarns becoming so hard and brittle, when exposed on deck to the temperature of the atmosphere, as to be too stiff for working, and very easily broken. I may in this place remark, that our lower rigging became extremely slack during the severity of the winter, and gradually tightened again as the spring returned: effects the very reverse of those which we had anticipated, and which I can only account for by the extreme dryness of the atmosphere in the middle of winter, and the subsequent increase of moisture.

At half-past five in the evening, the decks were cleared up, and at six we again beat to divisions, when the same examination of the men and of their berths and bed-places took place as in the morning; the people then went to their supper, and the officers to tea. After this time the men were permitted to amuse themselves as they pleased, and games of various kinds, as well as dancing and singing occasionally, went on upon the lower deck till nine o'clock when they went to bed, and their lights were extinguished. In order to guard against accidents by fire, where so many fires and lights were necessarily in use, the quarter-masters visited the lower deck every half hour during the night, and made their report to the officers of the watches that all was, in this respect, safe below; and to secure a ready supply of water in case of fire, a hole was cut twice a day in the ice, close alongside each ship. It is scarcely necessary to add, that the evening occupations of the officers were of a more rational kind than those which engaged the attention of the men. Of these, reading and writing were the principal employments, to which were occasionally added a game at chess, or a tune on the flute or violin, till half-past ten, about which time we all retired to rest.

Such were the employments which usually occupied us for six days in the week, with such exceptions only as circumstances at the time suggested. On Sundays, Divine service was invariably performed, and a sermon read on board both ships; the prayer appointed to be daily used at sea being altered, so as to adapt it to the

the service in which we were engaged, the success which had hitherto attended our efforts, and the peculiar circumstances under which we were at present placed. The attention paid by the men to the observance of their religious duties was such as to reflect upon them the highest credit, and tended in no small degree to the preservation of that regularity and good conduct, for which, with very few exceptions, they were invariably distinguished.

Early in January, 1820, symptoms of scurvy appeared on the gunner of the Hecla, originating (it was conjectured) in the damp state of his bed-place: but they were speedily removed by the exhibition of the antiscorbutics on board, and especially of fresh mustard and cress, raised in the Captain's cabin in small boxes filled with mould, and which was ready for use in six or seven days after the seed had been sown. Though etiolated, from want of light, these plants were not deficient in their natural pungency or medical virtues. — The 7th of this month proved one of the most trying days to the feelings of the crews during the whole range of their hyperborean winter, the wind blowing strong from the north, with a heavy snow-drift, and the thermometer indicating from -38° to -40° . Yet, under considerably lower degrees of temperature, the men were unconscious of that feeling of laceration in the lungs, which others pretend to have experienced; and, although they were accustomed for some months, in passing from the cabin to the open air, and *vice versâ*, to undergo in a minute a change of 80, 100, or even 120 degrees, not a single inflammatory complaint occurred, beyond a slight cold. It is also deserving of remark that the vapour of the cabin was converted, on the admission of the cold air, not into a shower of snow, but into the visible appearance of thick smoke, which settled on the pannels of the doors, and on the bulk-heads, investing them with a coating of ice. — During the continuance of intense cold, the human voice, in ordinary conversation, was distinctly heard at the distance of a mile, which proves the highly condensed state of the atmosphere. The rigging of the ships, also, (as we are told in the preceding extract,) was slackened during the cold, and recovered its tightness by the end of April, when the temperature was moderate; a fact which, it is remarked, is at variance with the observations of some prior navigators: but the comparative humidity or dryness of the air has probably a much more direct hygrometrical influence on cordage than mere cold or heat; and this idea, we have seen, had not escaped Capt. Parry's discernment. When the thermometer was at 51° below zero, in the open air, and the weather calm, Mr. Fisher assures us that he felt no more inconvenience from it than from the temperature of zero in a breeze

breeze of wind." A small quantity of strong brandy, when exposed to deck on the same day, began to congeal in ten minutes, but never became harder than honey, and had much the appearance of moist brown sugar. The freezing altered neither its taste nor its strength.

A very brilliant and diversified display of the *Aurora Borealis* was observed on the 15th of January: but this phenomenon, though of frequent occurrence, was seldom so splendid as in considerably lower latitudes; and the corruscations were not known to emit any hissing noise, or to affect in the slightest degree either the magnetic needle or the gold leaf of the electrometer. Various instances of halos, parhelia, and mock moons, are also noticed in the course of the journals, but not materially differing from those which have been described by former navigators in the north seas.

On the third of February, at 20 minutes before apparent noon, the sun was seen from the *Hecla's* main-top; and at six o'clock in the morning of the 15th of the same month, the spirit-thermometer denoted 55° below zero, the most intense cold which the navigators experienced during their residence in Winter Harbour, and which is known to have been only once exceeded by 2° in Siberia. Yet 'not the slightest inconvenience was suffered from exposure to the open air, by a person well clothed, as long as the weather was perfectly calm; but, in walking against a very light air of wind, a smarting sensation was experienced all over the face, accompanied by a pain in the middle of the forehead, which soon became rather severe. We amused ourselves in freezing some mercury during the continuance of this cold weather, and, by beating it out on an anvil, previously reduced to the temperature of the atmosphere; it did not appear to be very malleable when in this state, usually breaking after two or three blows from the hammer.' In the course of these extreme degrees of cold, Mr. Fisher poured a quart-bottle of water through a small cullender from the main-top; and, when the drops reached the roofing of the ship, they were congealed into spherical masses.

The observatory-house, which had been erected on the shore, having caught fire, both officers and men shewed the utmost diligence and alacrity in subduing the flames.

'The appearance,' says Captain Parry, 'which our faces presented at the fire was a curious one, almost every nose and cheek having become quite white with frost-bites in five minutes after being exposed to the weather; so that it was deemed necessary for the medical gentlemen, together with some others appointed to assist them, to go constantly round, while the men were working at the fire, and to rub with snow the parts affected, in order to restore

restore animation. Notwithstanding this precaution, which, however, saved many frost-bites, we had an addition of no less than sixteen men to the sick lists of both ships in consequence of this accident. Among these there were four or five cases which kept the patients confined for several weeks; but John Smith, of the artillery, who was Captain Sabine's servant, and who, together with Serjeant Martin, happened to be in the house at the time the fire broke out, was unfortunate enough to suffer much more severely. In their anxiety to save the dipping-needle, which was standing close to the stove, and of which they knew the value, they immediately ran out with it; and Smith, not having time to put on his gloves, had his fingers in half an hour so benumbed, and the animation so completely suspended, that on his being taken on board by Mr. Edwards, and having his hands plunged into a basin of cold water, the surface of the water was immediately frozen by the intense cold thus suddenly communicated to it; and notwithstanding the most humane and unremitting attention paid to them by the medical gentlemen, it was found necessary, some time after, to resort to the amputation of a part of four fingers on one hand and three on the other.

April 30., the thermometer stood as high as the freezing point, for the first time since the 9th of September; and this advance in the temperature felt so like summer, that the men were with difficulty prevented from divesting themselves of their warm clothing.—The operation of cutting the ice round the ships having been completed on the 17th of May, all hands were employed in refitting them, and making the necessary preparations for resuming the voyage. Some attempts to establish a kitchen-garden on shore proved quite abortive; for the radishes did not exceed an inch in length by the end of July, and the seeds of onions, mustard, and cress, did not vegetate.—The 24th of May was signalized by a shower of rain; a phenomenon which was hailed with rapture, on account of its being the first which had been observed in these frozen regions;—and the same regale was repeated in the evening.

Having now brought our adventurous countrymen safely through their extraordinary winter, and preparing for the operations of summer, we must suspend our report of their proceedings, and resume it in our next Number.

[To be continued.]

ART. VI. *Mr. Mill's History of British India.*

[Art. concluded from Vol. xxi. p. 850.]

In the first part of our report of this publication, we enlarged on the early history of Hindustan, and endeavoured to convey an idea of the very deficient civilization of the inhabitants; following

following up our remarks with a brief abstract of the leading events in the annals of our countrymen in India during the last and the present century. We cannot now afford any farther space for observations on the matter of the book itself, but must proceed to remark on the character and merits of the writer, beginning with that feature which must have struck every attentive reader as his leading distinction, viz. a spirit of investigation and reflection. He deems it the duty of an author to contemplate with attention the social condition, whether high or low, of the nations whose history he relates; and to render a full account of their institutions, religious, moral, and political: making his work, as far as possible, conducive to the *histoire raisonnée* of human nature.

Of the subjects on which he dwells, the most prominent are Government and Jurisprudence. With regard to government, Mr. M. belongs to the liberal school, following the opinions of Milton, Hampden, and Sydney; and omitting no opportunity of exposing the danger of ministerial influence, or of urging that the East India Company are the fittest depositaries of power and patronage for India. He takes occasion also to shew how the downfall of the French in India was accelerated by the vices of their government at home; and, whenever the subject admits of reference to the history of other governments, whether antient or modern, his reader is warned in emphatic language of the debasing effects of unrestricted power. — Next, as to jurisprudence, the reader will here meet with an ample store of observations on the principles of law, the administration of justice, and the character of lawyers; topics with which this writer discovers an intimate acquaintance, and turns it to great account in two respects, viz. in analyzing the legal institutions of the Hindus, and in discussing the measures taken by us within the last half century to introduce English law into our East India possessions. The grievances of our law, its long delay, its heavy expence, and its technical obscurities, — evils which to many appear unavoidable accompaniments of the administration of justice, — are, in the opinion of Mr. Mill, only the result of a defective system, and of a multiplicity of forms in a great measure needless; the continuance of which we owe partly to a blind adherence to old usage, and partly to the selfishness of the retainers of the law. His leading principle is to dispense in a great measure with the forms of court; and to make the pleading and defence of a cause before a judge as simple a proceeding as the adjustment by a master of a dispute between his servants, the judge paying very little attention to precedent, and consulting merely the equity of the case. These opinions are expressed

expressed with a confidence which, unaccompanied as it is by previous explanation or saving qualification, will doubtless startle a number of readers: some of whom will question the practicability of the proposed remedies; and many will deny the ease of their application. Mr. M.'s reasoning, however, is more vulnerable in the form than in the substance; for his arguments will be found, on examination, to rest on a solid basis, and in some measure to have received a practical exemplification in the case of our neighbours on the south side of the Channel. No attempt, indeed, has been made in France to exchange the technical for the simple and natural mode of pleading recommended in the present work, but a cumbrous mass of statutes has been digested into a clear and concise form; offering, in the printed codes, a series of rules and definitions which, though far from comprehending every case, constitute a material step towards improvement, and are equally conducive to the advantage of judge, counsellor, and client.

Similar remarks, both in praise and censure, are applicable to Mr. M.'s opinions on government. We may give, as a very brief example, the sentence with which he begins a comment on the memorable act of parliament relative to Indian affairs in 1773. 'Practical statesmen are commonly, notwithstanding the airs with which they assume to themselves the monopoly of political wisdom, but mole-eyed legislators. The present was on a level with their usual ignorant and abortive experiments.' (Vol. ii. p. 298.) This passage, short as it is, may be considered as a specimen of that dogmatic abruptness, both in argument and style, which forms one of the great drawbacks of the production before us; and which proceeds apparently from the author taking for granted that his readers, having carried their researches as far as he has, require very few explanations to join in his conclusions. The case, however, is wholly different. The very numerous class who have been, at all times, accustomed to put their faith in practical statesmen, are not to be so suddenly converted; though they might perhaps have deemed these ideas less exceptionable if conveyed in a modified form:—thus:—'Practical statesmen, from the hurry attendant in office, and frequently from an too early introduction into active life, are often devoid of that stock of knowledge, and of those habits of continued reflection, which alone can render them judicious legislators, or enable them to anticipate the remote results of a measure.' &c.

Respecting morality in politics, Mr. M. is equally decided, regarding the tricks of diplomatists and the art of cabinets as not only reprehensible, but as wholly unnecessary to a judicious government. The dazzling acquisitions of the Marquis

India: Wellesley in India are subjected to a close scrutiny, and exhibited in a view very different from that which is conveyed by the lofty tone of his Lordship's own dispatches. In truth, the consolidation of our power in India is to be sought in the arts of peace, and in the progressive introduction of improvement; a course which, however different from the presumed depth of great politicians, will be found the true cause of aggrandizement in the case of powers apparently most indebted to causes of a very different nature. If we turn our eyes to the continent of Europe, and take as an example Prussia, — the state which seems to have gained proportionally more than any other in the last century, — we shall find that country to have been much more indebted to long periods of peace, such as occurred before 1740 and subsequent to 1763, than to the brilliant military successes of the intervening period. — By many readers, the length to which Mr. Mill carries his views, on these and the preceding topics, will be deemed theoretical: but to such an opinion we are far from assenting, considering these and their kindred principles as the only true bases of good government; and being antiquated enough to think that the adage in favour of honesty is as applicable to public as to private transactions. In support of this idea, we may refer with confidence to Marquis Cornwallis's mild and upright administration in India: but we are, at the same time, aware that a long interval (longer than Mr. Mill appears, if we may judge by his language, to anticipate,) must elapse, and many improvements take place in the education of our public men, before such examples become numerous, or obtain the general assent of that public among whom so many still account the war of 1793 "just and necessary," and deem our Orders in Council a master-stroke of policy.

We come next to the cardinal virtue of Impartiality; and here we find Mr. M. following literally the politician's maxim of indulging neither love nor hatred: no public character is assailed by obloquy, none is exalted by panegyric. His tone is frequently severe: but, amid all the censures passed on the administrators of India, we observe no marks of personal dislike. Of this individual fairness, a striking proof is afforded in the summary given by Mr. M. of Mr. Hastings's administration, when he had previously animadverted very pointedly on the measures of that governor against the Rohillas and the Rajah of Benares.

After the unreserved exhibition which I have accounted it my duty to make of the evidence which came before me of the errors and vices of Mr. Hastings's administration, it is necessary for the satisfaction of my own mind, and to save me from the fear of

having given a more unfavourable conception than I intended of his character and conduct, to impress upon the reader the obligation of considering two things. The first is, that Mr. Hastings was placed in difficulties and acted upon by temptations, such as few public men have been called upon to overcome; and of this the preceding history affords abundance of proofs; the second is, that of no man probably who ever had a great share in the government of the world, was the public conduct so completely explored and laid open to view. For the mode of transacting the business of the Company almost wholly by writing; first, by written consultations in the Council; secondly, by written commands on the part of the Directors, and written statements of all that was done on the part of their servants in India, afforded a body of evidence, such as under no other government ever did or could exist; and this evidence was brought forward with a completeness never before exemplified; first, by the contentions of a powerful party in the Council in India; next, by the inquiries of two searching Committees of the House of Commons; in the third place, by the production of almost every paper which could be supposed to throw light upon his conduct during the discussions upon the proceedings relative to his impeachment in the House of Commons; lastly, by the production of papers upon the trial: all this elucidated and commented upon by the keenest spirits of the age; and for a long time without any interposition of power to screen his offences from detection. It will probably be found that evidence so complete never was brought to bear upon the public conduct of any great public actor before. And it is my firm conviction that if we had the advantage of viewing the conduct of other men, who have been as much engaged in the conduct of public affairs, as completely naked and stripped of all its disguises as his, few of them would be found whose character would present a higher claim to indulgence, — in some respects, I think, even to applause. In point of ability, he is beyond all question the most eminent of the chief rulers whom the Company have ever employed; nor is there any one of them who would not have succumbed under the difficulties which, if he did not overcome, he at any rate sustained. He had no genius, any more than Clive, for schemes of policy, including large views of the past, and large anticipations of the future; but he was hardly ever excelled in the skill of applying temporary expedients to temporary difficulties; in putting off the evil day, and in giving a fair complexion to the present one. He had not the forward and imposing audacity of Clive, but he had a calm firmness which usually, by its constancy, wore out all resistance. He was the first or among the first of the servants of the Company, who attempted to acquire any language of the natives, and who set on foot those liberal inquiries into the literature and institutions of the Hindus which have led to the satisfactory knowledge of the present day. He had that great art of a ruler which consists in attaching to the governor those who are governed; for most assuredly his administration was popular both with his countrymen and the natives in Bengal. (Vol. ii. p. 683.)

It is said that "there are tricks in all trades;" and even men of letters, dignified as is their occupation, and highly conducted as it in general is to habits of rectitude and candour, can by no means plead an exemption from the charge. To trespass on the truth, or on a part of the truth, when the imagination of the reader can be fascinated by a dazzling picture, is a charge but too applicable to some of the fashionable writers of the day, and which we wish much we could pronounce to be non-existent in the pages of Gibbon and Robertson. This solicitude for admiration, however, this infraction on truth for the sake of fine writing, is certainly not to be ranked among the demerits of the present work: since in every chapter the reader will find opportunities of flattering our national vanity, and of exciting our sympathetic affections, passed over without being embraced, and no attention given to any thing which might interfere with a plain and direct statement of facts. After having related (vol. ii. p. 494.) the unfortunate defence made in 1780 by Colonel Baillie's detachment against the troops of Hyder Ali, and strongly interested the reader by the gallantry of our countrymen, Mr. M. does not scruple, on the receipt of a more circumstantial narrative, to subjoin a note that is calculated to destroy in a great part the effect of his text, by coldly declaring that, 'when proof is balanced, it is always more probable that men have acted like ordinary men than like heroes.'

The discussions on the act of parliament, which in 1793 introduced a material change into the mode of managing East India business, suggest to Mr. M. the following reflection:

To communicate the whole of the impression made upon a mind, which has taken a survey of the government of India by the East India Company more completely through the whole field of its action than was ever taken by any person before, and which has not spared to bring forward into the same light the unfavourable and the favourable points, it is necessary for me to state, and this, I conceive, to be the most convenient occasion for stating, that in regard to *intention*, I know no government, either in past or present times, that can be placed upon a level with that of the East India Company; that I can hardly point out an occasion on which the schemes they have adopted, and even the particular measures they pursued, were not by themselves considered as conducive to the welfare of the people whom they governed; that I know no government which has on all occasions shown so much of a disposition to make sacrifices of its own interests to the interests of the people whom it governed, and which has, in fact, made so many and such important sacrifices: that if the East India Company have been so little successful in amelioration, (the practical operation of their government,) it has been owing chiefly to the disadvantage

disadvantage of their situation, distant a voyage of several months from the scene of action, and to that imperfect knowledge which was common to them with almost all their countrymen; but that they have never erred so much as when, distrusting their own knowledge, they have followed the directions of men whom they unhappily thought wiser than themselves, statesmen and lawyers; and that, lastly, in the highly important point of the servants, or subordinate agents of government, there is nothing in the world to be compared with the East India Company, whose servants as a body have for a long time exhibited a portion of talent which puts to shame the ill-chosen instruments of other governments; and, except in some remarkable instances, as that of the loan-transaction with the Nabob of Arcot, have exhibited a degree of virtue, which, under the temptations to which they were exposed, is worthy of the highest praise.' (Vol. iii. p. 373.)

This paragraph deserves attention, not more for its substance than as a specimen of the composition of the history; discovering an undisguised freedom of thought and language, with a determination on the part of the writer to judge for himself. Our chief objection to the passage is its too positive and unqualified tone, particularly where reference is made to the officers, or, as they are termed, the *instruments of government*. That the author had no intention of flattering the East India Company is apparent in many parts of his book, and in none more than at its conclusion; where (vol. iii. p. 720.) he assails them in the point about which of all others they are most solicitous, viz. their finances; alleging that, in their periodical statements of assets, 'the rulers of the Company assign to them any value which seems best calculated to answer their designs.' Yet Mr. Mill holds now, we understand, a public situation in *the great house* in Leadenhall-Street.

Arrangement forms no small part of the merit of an historian; and in no respect is an injudicious writer more apt to fail, through a mistaken attention to coincidence of dates in preference to the connection of events, or the deduction of a course of reasoning. Mr. Mill, following the example of Dr. Robertson in his *History of America*, has very properly begun his detail not with a disquisition on the early history of the Hindus, but with the discovery of their country by Europeans, and with a narrative continued until 1708; a period sufficient to give the reader an interest in the people whose manners he then considers it as time to delineate. The succeeding chapters, appropriated to the government, laws, religion, and manners of the Hindus, would have lost much of their interest by being placed at the beginning. — Similar care is shewn in the disposition of the second and third volumes; the narrative being in general separated from the disquisition, and the latter not frittered into detached paragraphs,

paragraphs, but given in a collective form, so that each constitutes a whole. We have remarked only one passage in which we should desire a transposition of the narrative; viz. the short chapter (vol. ii. p. 284.) which treats of the Carnatic affairs, and which is at present interposed between two chapters relative to those of Bengal. If the great bulk of the volumes may suggest the charge of prolixity, that bulk must be regretted, but the charge is to be received with qualification; for it will be found to apply not to diffuseness of language, but to the introduction of a multiplicity of concomitant circumstances, and occasionally of details, when a statement of results might have sufficed.

The appearance of a work of the higher class naturally suggests a comparison with some acknowledged model; and the philosophic tone of these volumes points strongly to a parallel with the labours of Hume. That our readers may not be startled by our coupling together a name which only begins to be known with one that has long been celebrated throughout Europe, we premise that we speak of Hume when in middle age, and when giving to the public the first written part of his history of England: — not after he had polished his work, and arrayed it in “careless yet inimitable graces.”

If we compare the preparatory attainments of these writers, we find both intimately acquainted with the historians, the philosophers, and the orators of Greece and Rome; and both also remarkable for their reasoning powers, and for that turn of mind which, in the relation of events, looks less to the gratification than the instruction of the reader: — which makes history a continued lesson, and in the past seeks not objects of wonder but rules for the guidance of the future. In this their mutual province, what is the difference between their respective attainments? Mr. Hume had studied more the workings of the human mind in the individual: Mr. Mill the same workings as they affect society: — the one was qualified to unfold the motives of leading actors; the other, the progress of collective bodies. Political economy affords no fair ground for comparison; that science being in its infancy sixty years ago, and having only begun to engage the attention of Mr. Hume, while the present writer discovers an intimate and familiar acquaintance with it. On the same side is the balance with regard to diligence in research; for even the “Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire” does not discover a more varied or pains-taking investigation of authorities than the present history of India.

Rev. Oct. 1821.

M

Such

Such are the substantial claims to public approbation which this history possesses; yet we believe that it is comparatively but little known. One cause of this tendency to neglect may be found in the subject, which is of less general interest than those of our principal histories: but there is a farther cause — the neglect by Mr. Mill himself of the graces of composition; of that art which in France gave so wide a circulation to the speculations of Montesquieu and Buffon, and which in our day imparts such a charm to the narratives of Lagretelle. On opening the present volumes, the reader is struck with the cogent reasoning and the instructive views contained in the preface: but how much more gratifying would be his anticipations, were the same thoughts conveyed in carefully digested language? On continuing his perusal, he finds a composition frequently energetic but often abrupt; and at length he meets, in the relation of the Mohammedan irruptions into India, with a chapter in which, partly from the dryness of the subject and partly from inattention to the diction, he is at a loss to recognize the author of the preceding pages, until a comparison of the relative civilization of the Mohammedans and the Hindus presents Mr. M. in his former character, and sinks the disadvantage of style in the value of the matter. The second and third volumes are chiefly narrative, and certainly contain a number of animated descriptions; such as, vol. ii. p. 34., the character of Labourdonnais; p. 528., the exploits of Suffrein; vol. iii. p. 212., the capture of Bangalore; and p. 242., Lord Cornwallis's attack on Seringapatam. Yet still the animation is of a severe character; conveyed, according to the motto, *sermone masculino*. In Paris, it is the fashion for the ladies to give the *ton* to new publications: but, since Madame de Staël is no more, we can scarcely point out in the Gallic metropolis a female who would venture to pourtray the merits of the present work: — which never treats of *preux chevaliers*, and which contains no sympathetic touches or dazzling pictures of romantic magnificence.

To another cause of this historical labour being as yet inadequately valued, we have before alluded: viz. its bulk. "*Trois volumes in-quarto*," said a Frenchman, "*me font reculer à dix pas de distance*;" and without at present inquiring whether the work be too long for the magnitude of its contents, we cannot but regret that the whole has been printed simultaneously. The first volume contained ample matter, both historical and philosophical, to claim attention as a separate publication; and had it, like the first volume of Gibbon, been given in that manner to the world, its moderate size would have led to more general circulation, and would have prepared

prepared the public to read and appreciate its successors. In its present shape, the book requires for its perusal the leisure not of weeks but of months: — it is a companion for the evenings of a whole season, or in the vacant intervals of a voyage to the region of which it treats. The subjects discussed in it are so many, and the attention is so frequently called to appreciate in one part *disquisition*, in another *narrative*, — to weigh at one time the originality and at another the erudition of the writer, — that even reviewers, practised as they are in scanning the merits of a publication, and in separating the subordinate from the principal parts, are embarrassed amid this vast and multiform assemblage. The defects to which we object have been but partly corrected in the second edition; and we are consequently apprehensive that its readers will be confined, in a great degree, to persons connected with the East: so that the public at large will have but a slow and imperfect acquaintance with much in these pages which it imports them to know. One thing is clear; that the author of such a work will make a false calculation if he enters into new topics for the sake of reputation: he has merely to revise the old, to recast and to polish; studying not the materials of farther instruction to his readers, but the method of giving attraction to his instruction, that it may not be said of his book as of our great epic poem, — “its perusal is a duty rather than a pleasure: we desert our master and seek for companions.”

We must now, however, suspend our criticism, and conclude by directing the attention of our readers to a few reflections relative to India, though suggested by our late report of publications on a very different part of the world.

The Extension of our Inland Stations in India. — The recent discoveries in the application of steam to the purpose of navigation, among other benefits, have effected what may be termed a revolution in the commercial prospects of all countries that are intersected by great rivers. The Mississippi, hitherto ascended only by rowing, with a miserable sacrifice of time and labour, is now made to waft heavy-laden vessels upwards with almost as much ease as on its downward stream. The territory on its banks, and on those of the Ohio, the Illinois, and other rivers communicating with it, has thus acquired a new value, the western frontier of the United States being rendered as accessible by these rivers as the eastern frontier by the Atlantic. If we cast our eyes on the map of Hindustan, we shall perceive in various directions the practicability of a similar extension of intercourse; and that vast tract of solid continent, hitherto approached by navigators only on its shores,

will at a future (perhaps no very distant) date be penetrated to its interior. The Indus on the west, the Ganges on the east, the Godavery and Nerbudda in the centre, the Kistna, the Puddar, and the Cavery on the south, with a number of other rivers, are likely, if fuel can be procured on their banks, to become channels for the introduction of merchandise and the diffusion of improved habits in those hitherto very imperfectly explored regions. This facility of access will probably lead eventually to a change of great importance to the comfort of our countrymen in India; viz. the removal of the presidencies to higher and more healthy stations in the interior. Our establishments in the maritime provinces were originally made by merchants, and the mercantile men of any nation are seldom attentive to salubrity in the choice of situation. How many thousand lives have been sacrificed by the Dutch at Batavia and Demerara, and what injury to health was prepared by the Americans in building towns in such situations as New Orleans, Charleston, or even New York! Every year affords examples of mortality from this cause, and shews how long a time elapses before a government or its officers correct the evil consequence of such errors. Two British regiments, (the 50th and 92d*) sent out in the last year to Jamaica in the middle of summer, lost, as might have been foreseen, a great number of their most valuable members in the course of a few months. How has it happened that, in an island so long in our possession, every other consideration should not have been sacrificed to that of health in the choice of barracks; and why should not hospital-stations be erected on the high grounds, where the climate approaches, in its beneficial effect on invalids, to that of Europe? Still more may we say, how does it happen that, when the proper and the improper season for the arrival of troops there has so long and so well been known, the improper should so often be the time allotted?

Since the great territorial acquisitions of the present age, the East India Company bear much more the character of sovereigns than of merchants. Calcutta, therefore, chosen in the first instance as a mercantile station, ought to be allowed to revert to that character; and the rank of capital, as far as affairs not commercial are concerned, should be transferred elsewhere.

* Of all regiments in the service, the Ninety-second! a body of Highlanders! sent from the bracing cold of their native mountains to the debilitating heat of the West Indies: — the GALLANT Ninety-second, sent to close their career of glory under the attacks of inglorious disease. What a reward for the services which had made their name eminent throughout Europe!

Our countrymen often pass a number of years in the upper provinces of India without much injury to health, while in Bengal, and our maritime stations generally, the case is far otherwise. It is in fact nothing unusual, on their coming down from a residence in the upper provinces, to experience in Bengal the same or nearly the same effects from the heat as on their first arrival from Europe. In the north, also, the future contests for the possession of India are to be maintained, whether with the Nepaulese, the Afghauns, or the Sikhs; or, at a more remote date, with Russians marched through Persia. Supposing Delhi or some neighbouring station to be adopted as our political and military head-quarters, the next step would be the establishment of hospital-stations in the high country, to which our invalids might resort without the expence of a voyage to China, the Cape, or Europe. In other parts of India, similar establishments might be made. Bangalore, we understand, would answer the purpose admirably for our troops in the south; and the central part of the peninsula evidently presents enough of variety, in elevation and climate, to afford positions capable of accomplishing this most desirable object.

Over-land Journey to or from India.—Though the direct route between England and India by the Mediterranean, Persia, and the Persian gulf, is not above one-third of the distance by the Cape of Good Hope, it has hitherto been followed only by couriers and a few occasional travellers, in consequence of the dread of predatory Arabs and the difficulty of navigating the Euphrates. Yet that noble river seems as if intended by nature as the connecting link between Europe and India; for after having come, in the early part of its course, within 100 miles of the Mediterranean, it affords the means of water-conveyance all the way to the Persian gulf. Its waters increase in October, attain their greatest height in January, and continue to roll a great mass till May: but, during the summer and the autumn, its current is gentle. The difficulty of navigating consists in the occasional confinement of the stream within a channel of 100 yards, or less; and in the consequent rapidity of current, which, in spite of the efforts of the rowers, pushes a bark in the downward passage from bank to bank; though without causing serious injury, the bow or the stern of the vessel striking only against soft earth. This difficulty would probably vanish before experienced steersmen; and another obstacle, far more formidable, that of rowing or tracking against the current, may be at once obviated by the adoption of steam. Let us suppose that in this season of general peace, and of spirited improvement, a determination

is taken to make that regular which hitherto has been only occasional; we mean, to convey dispatches and a limited number of passengers over-land, every month or two months, from England to India. The journey in the first instance would be by land through France to Marseilles, or perhaps through Switzerland and Lombardy to Venice, whence a packet might sail first to Corfu, and thence to the eastern extremity of the Levant: landing the passengers near Seleucia in Syria, if the plan were to embark on the Euphrates where it approaches the Mediterranean; or to the southward, if it be deemed preferable, for the sake of shortening the river-navigation, to cross the Syrian desert, a distance of nearly 250 miles, in the middle of which stand the ruins of Palmyra. Embarking on the Euphrates at the angle where, nearly at the 34th degree of north latitude, it changes its course from south to east, the navigation thence to Bussorah is only between 700 and 800 miles; the task probably of ten days or a fortnight, supposing the vessel to anchor during the night. Arrived at Bussorah, the farther navigation to India is devoid of difficulty; and passengers may reckon on landing at Bombay, Goa, or the gulf of Cutch, within two months of their departure from England. It is worth remarking that a number of large rivers, which could carry steam-vessels into the heart of India, such as the Bunnass, the Nerbudda, and the Taptee, not to mention the Indus, have their influx into that part of the sea which would thus be first approached by packets arriving from the Persian gulf. With regard to the hazard attending the inland part of the passage, it would be the business of the Company to secure their vessels by treaty against hostilities from the established chiefs in that country, and the part of the passengers and their escort to defend themselves against roving depredators. That this would not be difficult is shewn by the safe conveyance at present of caravans, messengers, and occasional travellers. It has long been regretted, and no where more than in the work which we have now reported, that the Company at home should, from distance and consequent loss of time in the transmission of orders, have so little influence on the management of their affairs in India. How greatly would that influence be increased, by their being enabled to communicate with that country in the course of two months instead of four!

Also, vol. 2, of the daily volume, each volume of 100 pages, 21
 Art. VII. *History of the Persecutions endured by the Protestants*
of the South of France, and more especially of the Department
of the Gard, during the Years 1814, 1815, 1816, &c. I included
in a Defence of their Conduct from the Revolution to the
present Time. By Mark Wilks Esq. Vol. 2. pp. 112
Longman and Co. 1821.

THE preface states that this work was originally compiled from a variety of papers at the desire of the general body of ministers of the three denominations of Protestant Dissenters, in and about the cities of London and Westminster; that Mr. Wilks afterward visited the scene of the miseries which those papers described, for the purpose of procuring additional authentic information; that he obtained much intelligence from the immediate relatives of the individuals who were sacrificed in the disgraceful outrages in question; and that he has collected all the public documents relating to the extraordinary transactions which he details. To his industry in digesting and arranging these materials, we think that the highest acknowledgments are due: but he has done more: he has entered into a general discussion of the merits of the French Protestants as subjects to the family of the Bourbons; and he has proved, in our opinion most satisfactorily, that they have, as a body, in every instance carried their principle of obedience and of dutiful allegiance to its utmost bounds: in some cases, nearly as far as humanity could bear, and quite as far as reason could require. Mr. Wilks supports his arguments on this head by plain facts, by numerical calculations, by documents which have been unquestioned and are unquestionable; and we cannot in too strong terms recommend the volumes before us, to the attention of those persons who have been deluded by that subtle imposture, which was practised at the time when these matters were the subject of parliamentary inquiry. It was then most erroneously stated that the disastrous events which had occurred did not originate in religious persecution, but in political ferment; and that the complaining Protestants were only discontented and seditious Bonapartists.

In April, 1814, Louis XVIII. was restored; and it is well known that his restoration carried back to France a set of beings whose superstition, bigotry, and intolerance, whose tyrannical doctrines and exclusive privileges, had been among the exciting causes of the Revolution:—men who, though they had lost the refinements of the old court, still retained its inveterate prejudices; and who, although they had deserted their former sovereign at the only time when it was in their

power to assist him, seemed now to claim the merit of restoring his successor, while in fact they merely rallied round him when re-instated by a miracle, and clung to the throne, when again in splendor, as needy and rapacious dependents! These persons, instead of learning discretion in the school of adversity, seem to have nourished in secret every mean and cruel scheme of vengeance; instead of catching some common sentiments of humanity from the generous sympathy and liberal protection of a Protestant nation, they were indignant that they had been compelled by necessity to receive favours at the hand of heretics; and they hated every Protestant the more because to some of that persuasion they were bound to be grateful. These animalcules — we are ashamed to call them men — once more swarmed over the surface of France! but the greatest number infested the neighbourhood of Paris, for there they best could batten in the rays of royalty, and there most readily pounce on any preferments or sinecures that were suitable to their appetites. Some, however, distributed themselves among the provinces, and were anxious to nestle in their former resorts or those of their families. The department of the Gard was in this manner visited by a swarm of eminent personages; who, careless of the harmony that had reigned there for twenty years, brought with them the odious distinctions, the malignant passions, and the persecuting spirit of antient times. They came back to a peaceful and loyal department, in order to stir up religious dissensions, and to inflame the violence of an ignorant peasantry and hireling hordes against their unoffending fellow-subjects: they wished by violence to excite counter-action, that they might term it disaffection and rebellion; and they hoped to effect the predominance of the *one faith* by the pillage, the confiscation, and the destruction, of the property and the persons of the *reformed*. These intolerant leaders, and their accomplices throughout the kingdom, though at some distance from the court, kept up constant correspondence by expresses; and they assured the monarch that, if he would support the absurd pretensions of the church, they would support legitimacy to its full extent, at all perils. Even in public declarations, they recommended it to the King to reject the charter, and to shew himself a true descendant of his great family by throwing off every shackle, and proclaiming himself to be, what he ought to be, an absolute sovereign.

‘At this time the pure Catholic royalists,’ says Mr. Wilks, ‘disseminated the most atrocious libels against the Protestants, in their political capacity. They represented them as the authors

and perpetrators of all the crimes of the Revolution. It was nothing that the Revolution commenced in a part of France entirely catholic; that the most important measures of the legislature had been proposed by the Catholic clergy; the formation of the national assembly, in defiance of the King, by the Abbé Sieyès, at Versailles; the appropriation of the church-property by Bishop Talleyrand; and the abolition of royalty by the Curé Gregoire; that a Catholic priest, Roux, was appointed by the commune of Paris to conduct Louis XVI. from the Temple to the scaffold; that the Protestants could not have had any political influence; that at Nismes there was no difference of opinion as to the Revolution; that in the reign of terror, the Protestants received, as the reward of their attachment to a constitutional government, imprisonment, proscription, and death; that under Napoleon they had held only subordinate stations; all this was forgotten or denied. "The Protestants," said they, "abandoned royalty; the Revolution was their work; the tyrant heaped favours upon them; they oppressed the Catholics by his authority." Had Buonaparte been supported only by the Protestants, he would not have made France and Europe the stepping-stones for his ambition. What means, too, had the Protestants of oppressing Catholics? The Emperor's court was not composed of Protestants; they did not occupy the most lucrative and eminent offices; equality of religious rights was not achieved for France by Buonaparte; and when the revolutionary fury raged, the altars and the priests were most respected, where there were most Protestants.

Alas! these reflections were of no avail; truth and virtue, rank, talents, age, sex, all fell before the remorseless march of interested politicians and infatuated bigots. Wine, money, assurances of impunity, absolutions, and indulgences, were all employed to excite the agents to the work of persecution. Protestants could no longer appear in public without insults and injuries. They were obliged to fly from the promenades and the places of resort, to conceal themselves wherever they could find asylum, or seek an insecure refuge in their own houses. After the populace had abandoned themselves to every species of intemperance in the taverns, they assembled in the streets and public squares, in mobs of 3000 and 4000. Those, who, but a short time before, would have thought themselves disgraced by any contact with such persons, now supported and increased their licentiousness. If they met with Protestants they seized them, danced round them with barbarous joy, and amidst repeated cries of *Vive le Roi*, they roared in their ears cannibal songs, the chorus of which was, "We will wash our hands in the blood of the Protestants, and of their livers we will make *fricandeaux*." "We will make black-puddings of the blood of Calvin's children."

"I publicly and fearlessly declare, (says M. Durand, an advocate, and a Catholic,) that I have seen these frightful groupings; that I have heard these disgusting vociferations, these sanguinary songs; that more than a hundred times I have heard them; that those

those who sang, and those who listened, closed their songs with these sinister sounds, *Les Bourbons ou la mort!* Thousands of witnesses can attest my declaration, and, if necessary, I can produce the *procès-verbal* of a scandalous scene which followed one of these meetings. M. C—— was returning home; he heard horrible imprecations against the Protestants; he ventured to approach and make some observations on their impropriety; he was surrounded, attacked, and his life was in danger: a commissary of police interfered and rescued him. M. C—— was a Catholic.

No indignity was omitted by these ultra-royalists, which could outrage the feelings of the Protestants; their principles were calumniated, their characters were lampooned, their families were insulted in the streets, their ministers had gibbets drawn over their doors: every method that could be conceived was practised to degrade and intimidate them. The King's government was apprized of all that took place; but its connivance at these outrages was most intelligible and most criminal; an ignorant multitude, stirred on by the higher orders, increased in its audacity every day; the massacres of former times were mentioned with triumph; and the Protestants could not but apprehend the approach of some dreadful event.

At this moment, after a lapse of only ten months from his abdication, Bonaparte re-appeared in France. — Persecuted as the Protestants had been, they not only united with their Catholic fellow-subjects in every assurance of allegiance to Louis XVIII., but went before them in subscriptions for the support of his cause, and rallied round the royal standard, on an encouraging proclamation by the Duc D'Angoulême: a proclamation implying that the cause of the King and of the constitutional charter were the same, and that the professors of different religious creeds had nevertheless the same principles of morality inculcated on their minds, and ought to enjoy a suitable degree of liberty; deprecating, also, any disunion that might arise under the pretext of religious forms and opinions. These words of encouragement, though somewhat ambiguously expressed, yet strengthened the fidelity of the Protestants; but they found themselves treated with suspicion bordering on scorn; their services in the army were rejected as an attempt to attain military power, and one of the leading members of their communion (M. Vincent de Laurent) was imprisoned for having stated a circumstance, which was the next day announced by proclamation. It is matter of fact that the white flag was flying at Nîmes later than in any town in the south of France; that

this city, so far from supporting Bonaparte, was the last to submit to his authority; that, during the hundred days of his reign, no blood was shed in the department of the Gard, except in an affray in which three soldiers fell, with their arms in their hands; and that the city of Nismes itself was during all that period under the command of a Catholic General, Gilly. On the 15th of July, 1815, the authority of Louis XVIII. was re-established, and those miscreant agitators, who had before endeavoured to foment civil discord in the department of the Gard, returned once more from their lurking places, and again appeared triumphant and insolent, as if they had the merit of restoring their sovereign. Then commenced the real persecutions of the Protestants, of which the insults before shewn to them had been only the prelude. The troops in garrison in the town, consisting of 200 men, were, with a very few exceptions, killed in cold blood, and a reign of terror commenced throughout the whole department. Every true Catholic, every true friend to legitimacy, was taught to look on his Protestant fellow-subjects as heretics, who ought to be exterminated; as secret rebels and traitors whose destruction was a duty to his king. Between two and three hundred houses were burnt to the ground. A most respectable Catholic judge (M. Madier de Montjau) declares that, in the prisons of Nismes alone, he himself saw in the month of September, 1815, more than 600 Protestants, all detained without a warrant or the order of any public authority whatever; and that, for six months, not one among these hundreds was able to procure a trial, liberation, or even the regular registration of his imprisonment. More than two hundred Protestants throughout the department were murdered; some under circumstances of such shocking cruelty, that our blood runs cold as we read the details; and we must refer our readers to the volumes themselves, if they wish to obtain any accurate knowledge of the infamies perpetrated by Trestaillon, or of the murders in the families of Le Blanc and Chuyas. The most venerable pastors of the Protestant communion were dragged to slaughter, with every contumacy that ignorance and bigotry could suggest. In some instances the Protestants were compelled to discontinue their worship altogether; while in others they were decoyed by treacherous assurances of protection to visit their churches, and were there left to the infuriate attacks of the military and of the rabble. In the civilized country of France, and in the enlightened nineteenth century, under a legitimate monarch, and at the instigation of *pure and chivalrous royalists*, defenceless females were exposed to barbarities from which our nature recoils,

recoils, and from the recital of which the mind is anxious to relieve itself by incredulity: but farther investigation has only served more completely to authenticate the statements, which were made in England soon after the occurrence of these enormities.

‘At Nismes,’ says Mr. Wilks, ‘as in all France, the inhabitants wash their clothes either at the fountains or on the banks of streams. There is a large basin near the fountain, where every day great numbers of women may be seen kneeling at the edge of the water, and beating the linen with heavy pieces of wood in the shape of battledoors. This spot became the scene of the most cruel and indecent practices. The Catholics vented their fury on the wives, widows, and daughters of Protestants, by a newly invented punishment. They turned their petticoats over their heads, and so fastened them as to favour their shameful exposure, and their subjection to chastisement; and nails being placed in the wood of the *battoirs* in the form of *fleurs-de-lis*, they beat them till the blood streamed from their bodies, and their screams rent the air. The 14th and 15th of August were especially signalized by these horrors; and thus the fête of the Assumption, professedly designed by the Catholics to recall the most exalted purity and the Divine benevolence, was observed by those of Nismes by the most revolting violation of female modesty, and by brutal gratifications at which even savages might blush. Often was death demanded as a commutation of this ignominious punishment; but death was refused with malignant joy; murder was to perfect, and not prevent, the obscene and cruel sport. To carry their outrage to the highest possible degree, they assailed in this manner several who were in a state of pregnancy.

‘Madame Rath, when near her confinement, was attacked by about sixty of the purest Catholics, armed with knotted cords, *battoirs*, and stones. It was with difficulty she escaped instant death, and only by extraordinary skill that her life was preserved in premature child-birth. Her babe just breathed and expired. Her mother had already lost an eye from the discharge of a pistol, fired at her by Trestailon. The loss of her child, the distressing situation of her mother, and her own agony and shame, were the punishments inflicted on her for being guilty of — Calvinism.

‘Madame Gautiere, and Madame Domerque, in a similar critical period, were treated with similar indignity. Madame Reboul died in a few days of the injuries she had received. The daughter of Benouette was beaten and torn with nails, by a young man named Merle, assisted by an inhuman rabble of both sexes. One of the daughters of Bigonnette (who was thrown into a well and drowned) died of the ill treatment she experienced; one orphan sister, in terror, had become a Catholic, but the other, although at the risk of her life, refused to abandon her religion. A female servant was stripped of all her clothes, and left on the public road, covered with blood, and exposed to the jests of a degraded populace: — a soldier took off his great coat, threw it on her,

her, and conducted her to the town. A young woman, about twenty years of age, had engaged to marry a Catholic poorer than herself, but she made it a condition, that the marriage should be celebrated in the Protestant temple: this was during the 100 days. Circumstances changed, and the relations of the young man persuaded him to break off the connection. He went to the young female, and demanded that their union should be celebrated in the Catholic church; she refused to alter her resolution, and the compact was dissolved. Vengeance was threatened; she was seized in the street, and her intended husband joined the assailants: she was dragged to the fountain, and there whipped amidst cries of "*Vive le roi*," and indecencies, both of language and conduct, which it is impossible to relate.

The wife and daughter of Barignon were stripped before their own door, and the daughter received a blow from a knife, which has become an incurable wound. — Françoise was cruelly flogged: and after being placed backward on a donkey, with one of her hands tied to its tail, she was finally exposed in a most shameful attitude, and covered with mud to the sound of "*Vive le roi*." The widow Driole was stripped and flogged in her own house; the brigands then took away in a cart all her goods, and a quantity of corn she had gleaned, and afterwards set them on fire. Chabanelle was treated in the same manner in her apartments, when near confinement; and Isabeau Calours, also, before her dwelling in the *Place de Bachelas*. These miserable beings were so lacerated, that both they and their executioners weltered in blood. A female, called the *great Marie*, was whipped and brought into Nismes to the Palais de Justice on an ass: she died soon after. The daughter of Allerd died of the wounds she received. Madame Pic was carried in a hand-barrow to the hospital, and for two years did not recover from the effects of her injuries.

The scandalous nature of these outrages prevented many of the sufferers from making them public, and especially from relating the most aggravating circumstances; but the dames Gibelin, Bragouse, Gervier, Gourdoux, Audizer and daughter, Gregoire, Frequolle, Portier, Rigaud, Durante, Gas, and many others, are known to have been the victims of these barbarities; — the practice continued for several months. "I have seen," says M. Durand, a Catholic avocat, "the assassins in the faubourg Bourgade arm a *battoir* with sharp nails in the form of *feurs-de-lis*; I have seen them raise the garments of females, and apply with heavy blows to the bleeding body this *battoir*, to which they gave a name which my pen refuses to inscribe. The cries of the sufferers — the streams of blood — the murmurs of indignation, which were suppressed by fear — nothing could move them. The surgeons who attended on those who are dead can attest by the marks of their wounds, and the agonies which they endured, that this account, however horrible, is most strictly true."

Why, it will be asked, were these things suffered? Was there no police nor any military force in the department? Were the

the towns without prefects, and the districts without commanders? Were no courts of justice open? Was the department in a state of complete anarchy? Quite the contrary. In every other respect, unless Protestants were concerned, the police was vigilant and the military force effective, the magistrates exercised authority unquestioned, justice was administered with all its usual forms, and the department was in a state of most dutiful and loyal subjection. — Was the King himself kept ignorant of the destruction of his subjects by *brigands*, who, under the pretext of avenging his wrongs, gave scope to their own bigoted malignity; and who, by their crimes and excesses, were rendering the very name of royalists odious and ignominious? No: the King was not ignorant: he issued forth proclamations denouncing crimes in ambiguous terms, and extenuating the outrages of righteous zeal. In one of these papers, he assures his people that he had learnt with profound sorrow that, in the southern departments, some of his subjects had been guilty of the most criminal excesses; — that, under colour of making themselves ministers of public vengeance, Frenchmen, yielding to sentiments of private malice, had shed French blood, even since his authority had been universally established and acknowledged: — that certainly great crimes and infamous treason had taken place, and had plunged France into an abyss of misery; — and that *atrocious persecutions had been exercised against those of his faithful subjects, who, following the banner of his beloved nephew, with him courageously attempted to save France*; — but the punishment of these crimes must be national, solemn, and regular; the *guilty* must fall by the hand of the law, not by private vengeance: because justice would be offended, and the social compact destroyed, if any became at once judges and executioners for *offences* received, and even for *crimes* committed against his person. The Prefect of the city seemed to take the cue that was given to him.

“An indignation,” says he in one of his addresses, “*too natural, too universal, too thoughtless not to be excusable*, burst forth against those whom public opinion designated as the most violent enemies of the best of kings and the happiness of his people. Some places of public resort where they held their fatal consultations, and a few private houses, were attacked by you and destroyed, but though this vengeance was illegal, it was not disgraced by pillage; popular indignation was not degraded by a spirit of plunder. Well, inhabitants, what have been the consequences of this simple error?”

We do not know any terms strong enough to express the injustice and the impolicy of the government that, instead of ruling a nation, deigns merely to be the leader of a faction.

These

These enormities continued, with occasional intermissions, to be perpetrated till the month of December, 1815. Sometimes, the substitution of a new magistrate gave repose which was soon interrupted, and hopes which were quickly dispelled. Sometimes a visit from the Duc d'Angoulême produced a moment's pause, which was immediately followed by an explosion more than usually violent. Nothing can be more inconsistent than his professions, and the conduct of those who were supposed to be guided by him. — Sometimes a change was effected from the Protestants having Austrian forces, instead of their own fellow-subjects, quartered among them: on which occasions, the Austrian General expressed very forcibly his surprise at the contrast between the actual state of the district and that which he had been taught to expect, and his indignation at the falsehoods which had been fabricated relative to the disloyalty and turbulent spirit of the Protestants.

In the spring of 1816, farther proclamations were issued by the King, as little decisive and as little conducive to the ends of justice as those which had before appeared; and no attempt was made by government to bring the principal criminals to justice. Large bodies of Protestants, having witnessed murders at which the authorities connived, having themselves suffered indignities and oppressions merely on account of their faith, and having found the exercise of their religious rites always discountenanced and in some instances prevented, availed themselves of the only alternative which was left them except resistance; and, as they could not abandon their religion, they resolved to sacrifice all other interests by quitting a country which would no longer allow the free exercise of it. Sceptics may freely deride any sacrifice which is made for conscience-sake in matters of religion: but no honest man can refrain from respecting those who, whatever their faith and their points of doctrine may be, would rather undergo the miseries of exile than resign their sincerity: nor can any person of common humanity refuse to sympathize in the sufferings of those whose actions have been uniformly blameless, and whose opinions, whether right or wrong, have been uniformly honest.

These emigrations rather gratified the vulgar minds of the ultra-royalists in the provinces, but the accounts of them were not received with equal pleasure at court. — A much more considerable effect, however, against a repetition of the extravagances, was found in the discussion which this subject underwent in other states. In England, Sir Samuel Romilly, an illustrious descendant from a family of refugees who had sought

sought an asylum in this land of freedom from the dragonades of Louis XIV., made the recent persecutions in France the subject of parliamentary inquiry; and his speech on that occasion, as on every other in which humanity was interested, evinced comprehensiveness of research, directness of understanding, and that sensibility which, though never obtruded, was but too exquisitely interwoven in his character. He moved for the production of all the correspondence which had passed between the two governments relative to the Protestants in the south of France: but his motion was opposed, and ultimately rejected. — In some of her best times, England boasted of herself as the champion of the Protestant cause in Europe. Queen Elizabeth, when Spain tyrannized over the Protestants in the Low Countries, interposed something more in their favour than mere mediation; and even Oliver Cromwell, by his appeal to other Protestant states, and by his spirited remonstrance to the Duke of Savoy himself, effectually stopped the cruel persecutions commenced by that prince against the Piedmontese.* In the present instance, however, though the English had been so instrumental in replacing *Louis le désiré* on his throne, and though an English army was at that moment in Paris, it was declared that any interposition of our friendly offices, in favour of the Protestants in the south of France, would be an impertinent and unprecedented interference in the domestic affairs of another independent nation. Still the investigation of this subject, though it was not followed up by any official mediation, afforded that check which the circulation of public opinion always does exercise over those who are conscious of past outrages. Attempts have since even been made to bring some of the malefactors to justice: but the most notorious no one has yet dared to impeach; others have been tried and acquitted; and others, though condemned, have had their sentences reversed by the Court of Appeal on some point of form: while two of the most conspicuous agents of mischief, Bertrand of Arpaillargues, and Quatremaillons of Uzes, as soon as they had notice of prosecutions commenced against them, saved themselves by flight.

Early in 1817, the King removed the prefect of the Gard under whose superintendence so many plots had been matured, and so many evils perpetrated against the Protestants; and in 1818 the National Guard was dissolved, though their loyal zeal was so great that they could not be induced, for a

* See our Review for June last, p. 132.

long time to obey the royal mandate. The department has since been in a state of repose; and the exposure which has taken place of the factious and treasonable practices of the ultra-royalists, — of that party which under pretence of supporting the throne was in fact usurping the royal authority, — has now satisfied many, who were before deceived by calumnies industriously circulated, of the innocent and meritorious conduct of the Protestants. That party, however, though deprived of much of its secret influence at court, still continues its machinations throughout the country; and we cannot better describe the present condition of the Gard than in the words applied to it during the last year by M. St. Aulaire, father-in-law of the Duke de Cazes:

“Public disorders are now prevented, but security for the future has not yet been established; and how can such security exist in a country where that part of society which is nearest the throne continually displays the most odious anticipations? While it seems to recognize a law, distinct from *the law*; a government, distinct from *the government*; and a king, other than *the king* himself? It is but too true, that at Nîmes the lawful and protecting influence of the government has had to contend with the secret and exciting influence of a party. I repeat it, there is there imminent danger. The royal authority must exist for every one, or it will soon cease to exist for any one.

“In the department of the Gard, the Protestants have suffered much, and they have suffered with resignation; and I am certain they would have renounced all vengeance, and have signed a sincere reconciliation, under the auspices of the throne, if the party of 1815 had consented to destroy its organization. But this organization still exists, (April 25th, 1820,) and every day symptoms admonish the Protestants, that they enjoy not a durable peace, but a *truce*, and prudence counsels them to *prepare*. I do not say that there is a conspiracy, but there is at least a *league*, which is necessarily destructive of public tranquillity. What would be said, if the Protestants were to form an association? Who would have a right to complain? Not those who first gave the example; nor the government, which is unable to defend itself. Such is the state of the Gard, and I repeat, there will be no remedy till the organization, and the power of the party of 1815, are destroyed.”

We rejoice in the publication of the details before us: not with the view of exasperating any religious animosities in this country, but because they tend to expose in the most flagrant manner the folly and the vice of those who would overturn all the purposes of government, by making sycophancy, and pretensions to exclusive loyalty, the sole objects of the protection of the state; and by treating all persons, whose opinions they choose to suspect and denounce, as outlaws and outcasts from society. Wherever men are visited with punish-

ment, not for their conduct but for their opinions, some defect exists either in the civil institutions themselves or in the administration of them ; — wherever justice is not rendered impartially, and meted with equal hands to the highest and the lowest, — wherever the perpetration of crimes is allowed to escape with impunity, — one of the great ends of political association is lost, and the government is to that extent, a government of force and not of right. Yet, at this moment, Trestailon, a notorious incendiary and murderer, dares to stalk abroad in the heart of France, on the very spot on which he perpetrated his villanies, and before the face of those whose relatives have been the martyrs and whose property has been the prey of his outrages. Those, however, who have been encouraged to monopolize the title of loyalty, have in France taught their patrons that such extraordinary devotedness sometimes seeks to requite itself by secret powers, which may in the end overawe and subject to their own purposes the government which they seem to worship ; and those who could organize spies, and instigators to mischief, have been found able and daring enough to organize also a secret system for supporting the absolute authority of the crown, in defiance of the mandates of the king for the time being.

The details before us expose, in a still more glaring manner, the growth and progress of religious persecution ; and the wickedness which the ignorant can always be instigated by the malignant to perpetrate, in the name and for the honour of the God of mercies ! From the uninformed condition of the lower classes in most Catholic states, and from the great influence which the priests have over their minds, these excesses of bigotry may be expected to rage with the greatest violence in those countries : but, wherever the lower orders are uneducated, the same extravagances are likely to result when any religious excitement occurs, however different from the Catholic the nature and tenor of the doctrines established or espoused may be. In illustration of this remark, we need only advert to the riotous proceedings in London against the Roman Catholics in 1780, and in Birmingham against the Protestant Dissenters in 1791. Every denomination of Christians, in practice at least, attaches some peculiar merit to some peculiar mode of faith or form of worship ; and when the Lutheran, or the Calvinist, or the Independent, boasts that persecution for matters of faith is in its own nature essentially incompatible with the creed which he professes, he may perhaps receive some check in his laudable triumph by looking back at the events of past times. The member of the Church of England may recall to mind the ecclesiastical commissions in the time of Queen Elizabeth and of Charles I., and the atrocious

ties committed in Scotland against the Presbyterians in the time of Charles II. The Presbyterian himself may recollect the case of those who fled across the Atlantic rather than endure any restraint on conscience, and then, when established and become powerful in New England, fined, imprisoned, banished, and hung up the peaceful Quakers for non-conformity to their creed and ritual. Lastly, even these Quakers, the most meek and unoffending of all religionists, and who are said to dislike creeds and all human inventions, have been known in some instances to read out of their community men who were anxious to keep up communion with them, and who, from family partialities and old habits, still retained a love of their common place of worship: doing this, too, not on the ground of misconduct or any immorality in the parties excommunicated, but because they had entertained and avowed a difference of opinion on some speculative tenet.

It is not, we fear, the peculiar doctrine of any denomination of Christians that would preserve it from trenching, at least indirectly, on the liberty of others in exercising private judgment. In almost all societies, fanatics and bigots may be found; and, if any particular society should predominate, without the check of strong bodies entertaining different doctrines, experience shews us that many at least of its members would be willing to avail themselves of the power which they found in their hands, and to inflict severities directly or indirectly with the view of discountenancing all opposition to their faith. The result that must be inferred, we think, by every candid mind, is, that one of the ingredients of religious zeal, however disguised to others or however little suspected by the zealot himself, is a love of domination; that this zeal is always ardent in proportion to the ignorance of the person cherishing it, and to the quantity of spiritual pride generated by the peculiar pretensions to sanctity, or the exclusive efficacy unto salvation of particular doctrines; that this zeal is not confined to Catholics, but may inspire Protestants of all denominations; and that religious persecution is only one of the many forms from which the general maxim may be developed, that the *exercise of unchecked power is always prone to degenerate into the abuse of it.* Of all tyrannies, however, religious persecution is the most *absurd*, as making men miserable in this world under the pretext of improving their condition in another against their will; — it is the most *unprincipled*, as punishing integrity, and encouraging insincerity and interested apostacy; and it is the most *impious*, as justifying, under the plea of God's service, every diabolical extravagance, and endeavouring to annihilate God's best and noblest gifts to man, his reason and his conscience.

ART. VIII. *Elements of the Philosophy of Plants*; containing the Principles of scientific Botany, Nomenclature, Theory of Classification, Phytography; Anatomy, Chemistry, Physiology, Geography, and Diseases of Plants; with a History of the Science, and practical Illustrations. By A. P. Decandolle and K. Sprengel. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 520. and Eight Plates. Edinburgh, Blackwood; London, Cadell. 1821.

NEITHER the public of this country in general, nor the readers of our pages in particular, have yet to learn the eminent botanical merits of M. Decandolle: nor do we now first promulgate our opinion that he is the greatest botanist living. In saying this, we mean that his own examination and dissections of vegetables, both living and dead, have made him intimately acquainted with many more species than any of his cotemporaries; that his judgment in dividing them into classes, orders, and genera, and all these again into sections, which place every individual between those two to which it has the closest resemblance, is superior to that of all others; that his physiological views of their origin, and manifold structures, are by far the most correct; and, lastly, that he has the happiest talent of communicating his ideas in clear and forcible language, and invariably rendering to all his fellow-labourers their due, without the slightest jealousy. M. Sprengel, the other author of the volume before us, has fewer claims to this *éloge*; which it is imperative for us to pronounce, on account of his mutilations of the *Théorie Élémentaire* of "his excellent friend," as he calls him; and because the anonymous translator has remarked that, "as Decandolle is distinguished by the subtlety, flexibility, and metaphysical cast of his expression, Sprengel *seems* to possess a style occasionally abrupt indeed, but always luminous, condensed, and bearing evident marks of a mind of no common powers." We must also observe that both the German and the Scotch writer unjustly depreciate Willdenow's work on the Physiology of Plants; the former asserting that it has become completely useless, and the latter declaring, somewhat more temperately, that it has lost almost all its value: while, under the mask of commendation, he gives the President of the Linnean Society a slap, by saying that 'the correctness of his facts and views, and scientific elegance of description, are the only qualities he was desirous to secure for his works.' M. Sprengel certainly has great merit: but, before we do him justice, let us try to give our readers an imperfect idea of the superior talents of M. Decandolle. We say imperfect, because, in order to have a competent knowledge of them, his

book itself must be studied, and perpetually consulted, as it is by even the oldest and most accomplished botanists. All young students of this lovely science we earnestly advise to cross over to Calais in the steam-boat, and join the crowd who attend his lectures at Geneva, "*integros accedere fontes, atque haurire.*"

M. Decandolle divides his *Théorie Élémentaire de la Botanique*, 1st, into an *Introduction*, containing general characters of all organized beings; for, in treating of those that are endowed with vitality, vegetables having been too often and vaguely compared with animals, it became necessary to establish limits between them; and this he does by attributing to animals *sensibility*, or a consciousness of existence, joined to a voluntary power of moving their whole bodies, or parts of them, while vegetables are deprived of these properties. 2dly, *Taxonomy*, or the laws for arranging vegetables, under which he includes every practicable method, natural or artificial. 3dly, *Phytography*, where he states the principles on which vegetables ought to be named and described. 4thly, *Glossology*, or an explanation of the terms used by botanists, in a limited or peculiar signification. This nomenclature is generally derived from the Latin, because that language is understood by the learned of all nations. The nomenclature of botanists cannot be expected always to display the purity of the golden age of Roman literature, their objects being altogether unknown to the writers of that period; yet a botanist should neither mistake nor disregard the laws of grammar, nor the idioms of the language in which he writes. When the Latin cannot be employed, he must betake himself to the Greek, but should never use a word compounded of both. — The author concludes by remarking that it is absolutely necessary for each distinct form, and each distinct organ, to be designated by a peculiar expression. To this position we must all assent: but two Parisian botanists, Henry Cassini, and Claude Louis Richard, have surely gone too far in assigning different terms to every slight variation or appendage of the most common organs. One of the best works of the latter famous carpologist, on *Orchideæ*, is rendered positively unintelligible by the multitude of new terms introduced, till the reader has made himself acquainted with them. Two new terms, formerly suggested in this country, (by Mr. Salisbury, as we recollect,) namely, *Torus* for the receptacle of a simple flower, and *Colum* for the receptacle of the seeds within the fruit, we believe are now abandoned by the proposer of them; and we cannot adopt the *sepala* of Neckar for *foliola*, *parapetala* of Link for *squamæ*, or *perispermum* of Jussieu for *albumen*.

In arranging the terms of vegetables, M. Sprengel has not only departed widely from M. Decandolle, but has omitted a great many, and totally mistaken the meaning of others. ~~Exceedens~~ in the English translation is no doubt a typographical blunder for *excedens*: but *trochlearis*, first proposed by Mr. Salisbury, in the sense given to it by Lucretius and Vitruvius, to express a pulley-shaped form, and so limited by M. Decandolle, is by M. Sprengel most unaccountably made synonymous with *spiralis*, the twisted capsules of *Heliotropes* being quoted as an example! To the common terms *pilosus* and *villosus*, M. Sprengel attaches quite a different meaning from that of all other botanists; defining *pilosus* by soft and somewhat long bent hairs, but *villosus* by soft parallel erect hairs. Linné, the immortal founder of botanical nomenclature, and Decandolle, make *pilosus* to signify hairs which are simple and stiffish, and *villosus* soft hairs not very numerous. *Hirtus*, used hitherto only to express short stiff hairs, M. Sprengel applies to very long stiff hairs; and *lanceolatus* he restricts to a form gradually tapering towards its apex, and of considerable length: which we, with the whole world, learned and unlearned, call *cuneatus*, following Linné strictly in making *lanceolatus* designate a form tapering to both extremities. He also makes the want of hairs, or of substances resembling hairs, constitute a smooth surface, *glaber*, where *nudus* surely would be more appropriate. In the English translation, the parallel streaked depressions in the seeds of *Anonæa* are twice called *ruminate* instead of *ruminated*. M. Sprengel proposes a new and to us very inadequate term, *Dichogamy*, to express that law by which the males and females come to maturity at different periods: calling the *dichogamy*, moreover, *androgynous*, when the males are ready to discharge their pollen before the females can imbibe it; and *gynandrous*, when the latter are ready before the males, which more seldom occurs. This precocity of the males we have observed to be much more common than it is supposed to be; and, reasoning *à priori* as well as *à posteriori*, it was probably ordained to multiply the number of species when the earth was first covered with vegetables: for we find that, in every genus in which it prevails, the species and varieties are exceedingly numerous. Among many useful terms omitted, are Linné's *adversus*; the *lacunæ* or air-cavities of Mirbel; *spongiolæ* of Decandolle, which, when terminating the roots, Mr. Correa de Serra called *stigmata radicum*; *rhisoma* of Ker, formerly Gawler, and still better known on the Continent by his first name; *lecus* or *plateau* of Decandolle, most necessary to express the flat fibriferous part of bulbs; *ochrea* and *ascidium*

association of Willdenow; *Anastoria* of Decandolle, common in a certain *akabstrum* of Link, employed to designate any unopened young flower; *gamopetalus* of Decandolle, to express what have been hitherto so improperly called *monopetalous* corollas; *chorda patillaris* and *radicle* of Correa de Saena; *corolla* of Ruellius, adopted in this country from him in describing the flowers of *Narcissus*, *Pantratum*, *Hymenocallis*, and *Pasiflora*; *cariopsis* of Richard; *nutlet* of Decandolle; *gallulus* of Gaertner; besides many others, of which it is absolutely necessary for every botanist to know the meaning, if not to use them. Any of Decandolle's youngest pupils would therefore feel ashamed to turn the *Glossology* of Sprengel for that of his master.

In the *Taxonomy*, forming the second part of M. Sprengel's work, M. Decandolle's paragraphs are rather more literally rendered; and, as they relate to an important point, the number of vegetables existing on our globe, we insert as much as we have room to quote. *

Thirty thousand species of plants are at present known, and this number will probably amount to fifty thousand, when all the plants already collected in gardens and herbariums are described. If we suppose the central regions of Asia, Africa, New Holland, and America, to have been once as well explored as many countries of Europe have already been, we may deem it very likely that above a hundred thousand species exist on the earth; and every one of these has its natural country, form, properties, and uses, the knowledge of which must have an important influence in the progress of trade and the useful arts. Who shall clear a way for us in this formidable labyrinth, and how shall we become particularly acquainted with each plant? This important service is performed for us by what has been called a *method* or *arrangement* of plants; either artificial, by being deduced from one common principle selected *ad libitum*, or natural, by depending on the common marks of several families or groupes; and botanists have always been so convinced of the necessity of such an arrangement, that they have regarded a knowledge of the laws, on which it depends as the highest object of their wishes and exertions. While a small number only of plants were known, the want of classification was scarcely felt; but, since the beginning of the sixteenth century, it has been more and more pressed on our attention; and however imperfect were the first attempts of L'Obel and Bauhin, every unprejudiced man confesses that the principle on which they proceeded, namely, that of arranging plants as nature has arranged them, is the only right principle. No person has carried further the attempt to find out, and even in some degree complete

We do not copy from the volume before us, but translate from the original.

the manifold classifications which may be devised, than the immortal Michel Adanson, who has proposed not fewer than sixty-five. In all such attempts, we ought carefully to distinguish the more essential organs from those which have no immediate connection with their propagation; and, accordingly, the flower, fruit, and seeds of vegetables furnish the most important characters of classification. Those methods which have for their end the easiest mode of ascertaining the name of any vegetable are called artificial; while those, on the contrary, which depend on the various agreements and differences of vegetables, without adhering to one leading principle, may be justly termed natural. In the former, such organs must necessarily be selected as are invariable, and are common to the greatest number of plants; in the latter, every part of a plant must have its due attention, even the organs of vegetation; for it is often found that important differences in these parts induce equally important variations in the organs of reproduction.

When giving an account of the sexual system, M. Sprengel's remarks on its deficiencies are very just; and he tells us that it was reserved for Sir J. E. Smith to propose the happiest alteration of it, namely, that of rejecting from its 21st, 22d, and 23d classes, every genus which included no actual difference of the male and female flowers; placing *Acer*, *Vernatrum*, *Hydrocharis*, *Stratiotes*, and *Sagittaria*, therefore, according to the number of their stamina. We must add, however, that this proposition originated with Dryander, when Thunberg's alterations of the sexual system appeared in the *Flora Japonica*, about the year 1785.—In the succeeding pages, more than half of M. Decandolle's original matter is omitted, and we have space to insert but a small portion here. With regard to the importance of the different organs of vegetables, M. Decandolle attributes the greatest to the embryo, all the others being subservient to its production; 2dly, to the stamina, and that important bundle of vessels first called by Correa de Serra, *Chorda pistillaria*, which run from the stigma to the embryo; 3dly, to the integuments of the fruit and seed; 4thly, to the integuments of the stamina and pistillum, namely, the corolla, calyx, and bractes; 5thly, to the nectaries and other accessory parts. Another point, first mentioned by Lamarck in the preliminary observations of his *Flore Française*, and which must not be forgotten in our classifications, is that any part of the fructification whatever acquires additional value from occurring constantly, or very frequently, in the species of any genus, order, or class. Finally, M. Decandolle confirms, in clear and beautiful language, the Linnean canon, of *Habitus occulta commendat*; or, in plain English, how necessary it is, to attend to that general symmetry of all their organs, which is the result

of a number of species having been formed on one and the same general model, variously diversified and extended. Here, however, he warns the young botanist against being deceived by false appearances, though they may be strong and imposing; and, as neither he nor M. Sprengel adduces any instances, we venture to mention a few. *Crocus* and *Colchicum*, though so closely resembling each other in their floral envelopes, have no affinity, and are endowed with totally opposite virtues; a species of the former producing bulbs which are good to eat like filberds, and regularly cried about the streets of Aleppo; while the roots of the latter are an active and virulent poison, both to man and cattle, if taken even in a small dose: forming, we believe, the chief ingredient of the *Eau Medicinale d'Huison* for the gout. *Chloranthus* and *Viscum*, which so many eminent botanists have conceived to be related, are in no way allied; the supposed floral envelope of the former appearing, by another species lately introduced from China, to be merely the thickened connective of naked anthers more or less grown together. Mr. R. Brown places it with *Ascarina* of Forster and *Hedysmum* of Swartz, in a separate order between *Piperæ* and *Urticæ*: but we think that its affinity to *Piperæ* is very dubious on account of its stipulation, unnoticed by Sims, and even by Lindley in his valuable *Collectanea Botanica*. The cotyledons of *Chloranthus*, moreover, which we have repeatedly raised from seeds, are fully developed, oval, and shortly petiolated: but those of *Saururus* and *Piper*, which M. Richard most unwarrantably refers to different orders, are very minute, erect, and sessile. *Ranunculus* and *Alisma*, so frequently imagined to be related by young botanists, belong even to different orders of the great primary divisions, *Monocotyledones* and *Dicotyledones*. *Begonia* and *Hydrocharis*, the male flowers of which in some species can hardly be distinguished from one another, are in the last-mentioned predicament. *Leontice* and *Peltosanthus*, agreeing in the early rupture of their pericarpium, and in the remarkable semblance of their seeds to a pericarpium, also belong to the different great primary divisions just mentioned. The whole of M. Decandolle's remarks on the monstrosities in vegetables, and the useful inferences which they afford in arranging them, are quite new, and absolutely necessary to be understood. Thus by them the affinity of *Scrophulariæ* and *Solanæ* is confirmed, the little short filament of *Antirrhinum* and other genera being elongated in *Peloria* into a perfect stamen. Indeed, *Peloria* is regarded both by him and by Cassini, so far from being a monstrosity, as a return to the original regular type of a large natural assemblage which we call a *Tribe*, with the

the name of *Surstylance*, containing about half of the *Monopetalæ* of old writers; and their opinion is confirmed by an analogous alteration of structure observed by us in *Viola* and *Isobella*. *Monotropa*, which we cannot remove with Nuttall and Lindley to the natural order of *Pyrolæ*, (those essential organs, its anthers and pollen, differing widely from any in the whole class of *Bicornes*;) affords a transition from one type to the other.

M. Decandolle concludes this part of his work by observing that, as the great mass of all organized beings are regularly formed, it is a very probable suspicion that the deviations from such regularity have been produced either by the suppression of one or more parts, in consequence of deficient nutriment and space for their developement, or by an addition to their number and magnitude from their richness and superabundance. The first edition of the *Théorie Élémentaire* having had a rapid sale, a second was printed in 1819; in which we find an additional chapter on the unphilosophical view hitherto taken of monopetalous floral envelopes: those which have been so denominated usually consisting in fact of several petals, more or less confluent at their margins towards the bottom. As we are no advocates for that maxim of the Medes and Persians which forbids all improvement, we think that the sooner such an error is amended the better; and the necessary alteration in botanical descriptions will not occasion any confusion whatever, but on the contrary afford far more accurate notions of the affinities of plants. If, instead of *Petalum 5-fidum*, or *5-partitum*, we say, *Petala 5 usque ad medium, vel basi coacta*, no person can misunderstand us, and what a number of anomalous structures vanish by this truly physiological mode of speaking? Thus the separate petals of *Clethra* are no longer an objection to place it near *Kalmia*; the very close affinity of *Rhodora* to those false *Azaleas* which we call *Oleodora* is confirmed; the pretended perfoliated leaves of *Lonicera* are clearly two, united at their base; the salver-shaped monocotyledon of *Melocactus* is formed of two cotyledons still more completely running together; the foliaceous disc of *Bupleurum stellatum* is made up of the separate bractes usually found in *Umbellata*; and we believe that these natural cohesions and junctions of neighbouring parts occur in all organs of vegetables whatever. In the calyx they are too common to need any recapitulation; the whole class of Linné's *Monadelphici* furnish proofs of them in the filaments; of his *Compositæ*, in the lobbers; and nothing is more common in the fruits of vegetables. Even among monogynous fruits, which nature never intended to unite, the "time and chance" which hap-

pen

pen to vegetables as well as animals, afford frequent instances, of double cherries and double plums; and, in polygynous flowers, this union of fruits is as common as their separation, which is abundantly proved by *Ranunculaceæ*, *Dilleneæ*, *Anemoneæ*, *Magnoliceæ*, and *Malvaceæ*.

In the sequel of the chapter, this profound carpologist remarks that even simple fruits afford far less real differences of structure than their various configurations lead us at first to suppose; thus his *Folliculus* is formed of a simple valve joined at its margins; his *Camara*, of two valves, joined at their margins, face to face; and his *Siliquetta*, exemplified in the fruits of *Nymphaea*, *Papaver*, and many *Crucifera*, is formed originally of three pieces, the two lateral pieces producing seeds on their inner discs, and the outer one having no seeds whatever. If it happens that two or more fruits of this kind are united by the outer sides of their lateral pieces, they form one common fruit with intervalvular placentas; each of which is double, and prolonged into a style or stigma apparently simple, but really made up of two united. This inaccuracy in botanical language, with the long train of erroneous ideas which it engendered, was pointed out by the learned Correa de Serra to the botanists who were accustomed to meet in Sir Joseph Banks's library, a great many years ago, when he first visited England; and due honour is paid to his sagacity by M. Decandolle; who adds that, by a strange *bizarrerie*, or preposterous misapplication of ideas, while the various parts of the flower have been hitherto described as inserted on instead of pushed out from those that are underneath, those of the stem have been considered as continuous, though they are unquestionably not. The branches of a shrub or tree, which every body hitherto has taken for a continuity of the main stem, originate in a bud which has no previous connection whatever with the wood, but is naturally evolved from those continuations of the medulla which are called Insertions by Grew, and the Silver Grain by Knight; the term *inserted* would therefore be peculiarly appropriate to them. In process of time, after the leaves have been developed, the layers of wood formed by their returning sap are closely united to the old wood: but it is by an addition like that of a plaster on a wound, not by transverse continuity. A singular effect of this general law, hitherto (we believe) unnoticed, may be seen in some of those *Filices* which we regard as *false Equisetums*, their capsules not being immersed, but pedicelled. In these, no lateral process from the Medulla ever touches the side of the stem, but is always terminal; the buds, therefore, are situated in the fork of the leaves; the

the lower part of their petiole being rather a branch than petiole. Something analogous to this occurs in *Conifere*, and is an additional reason with us for placing that most useful natural class of trees and shrubs after *Lycopodeæ*, *Cycadeæ*, which we would place as the first order of *Conifere*, having circinate vernation like *Filices* and *Lycopodeæ*. In *Schoubertia* of Mirbel, (our deciduous Cypress,) the new wood formed on the smaller branches is so thin, that they fall off entire on the approach of winter; and this is equally remarkable in a Chinese tree allied to *Schoubertia*, which has been erroneously called *Taxus mucifera* in our gardens.

In the next chapter, M. Decandolle gives some useful rules, deduced from the presence or the absence of certain parts of vegetables, their relative position, number, and magnitude; but they hardly admit of abridgment. One of his suspicions, however, first excited in 1813, is so very singular that we shall state it: 'When the *Chorda pistillaris* is 1-lateral, the valves and placentas of the fruit are never verticillated round either a real or an imaginary axis; it is very probable, however, that no 1-lateral *Chorda pistillaris* whatever exists in nature except by abortion.' This axiom is now fully proved; the author having observed two pistils united by that side to which the seeds were attached in *Gleditsia trianthos*, and sometimes in *Gonista scoparia*. We have remarked the same in *Spartium juncum*, and it occurs no doubt in *Cesalpinia digyna* of Willdenow. Another axiom is, 'Every flower naturally terminal, erect, and solitary, is regular, even though it belongs to a natural order commonly irregular; and the author adduces *Parnassia* belonging to *Violeæ*, and *Asarum* to *Aristolochææ*, as proofs. Respecting the affinity of the latter, no one can doubt: but *Parnassia* has none whatever in our opinion to *Violeæ*, which order we would insert after *Alsodææ*, *Tetradheceæ*, and *Polygalææ*, in a class by themselves, following that of *Leguminosæ*, in the tribe of *Merigamææ*. This tribe contains most of those polypetalous plants which have not an imbricated insertion of their reproductive organs. *Parnassia* appears to us, however, decidedly and very nearly related to another irregular order, *Resedææ*; and we think that it affords a strong argument against the opinion of Lindley that the flowers of *Reseda* are compound, not simple. A second objection exists in the simple spiked disposition of its flowers, which Linné has so unwarrantably likened to a bunch of grapes, calling this inflorescence a *Racemus*; for, in all *Tricocceæ*, to some of which Lindley thinks *Reseda* may be allied, if the flowers are compound, the inflorescence becomes fasciculated or umbellated: but, if the flowers are simple, even though

though of separate sexes, (as in *Ricinus* and *Croton*,) they are spiked. In whatever view future botanists may regard the flowers of *Roseda*, whether simple or compound, it can have no affinity to *Tricocca*; which we would insert between *Cucurbitaceæ* and *Rutaceæ*. Adanson's arrangement of *Roseda*, between *Putamineæ* and *Cruciferae*, appears to us immovable. It agrees with several genera of both those classes in the qualities of its root, which tastes precisely like *Horse-radish*; its stem and foliage are angulated in the same manner; its cuticle consists of the same thin transparent membrane; its pubescence, when present, is scurfy, and has the minute glandular or callous stipules of *Capparideæ*; and lastly, in the irregularity of its petals and nectaries, it approaches closely both to *Iberis* and to *Capparis*. M. Decandolle inserts *Rosedeæ* in his *Thalamifloræ*, with *Passifloreæ*, *Violaceæ*, and *Polygaleæ*, intervening between it and *Cruciferae*: but the parietal placentas of those orders are not of such primary importance as to prevail over the truly perigynous insertion of their stamina; for, if we separate the united filaments of *Passifloreæ*, they become strictly perigynous in Jussieu's sense of that term, and we have in fact a very near approach to this structure in some *false Modeccas*.

Another paragraph of M. Decandolle, relative to symmetry in vegetables, and the inferences to be deduced from it of a Great First Cause having created them, on a certain fixed plan, will please many of our readers so much that we cannot forbear to translate it entire:

"If," says this great and good philosopher, "I may be permitted to make a very trifling comparison on a subject so deep and serious, I will suppose myself invited to a brilliant feast, and certainly that of nature well deserves such a name. I ask myself, what proof exists that this banquet is not the result of chance; but that it has been ordered by the will of an intelligent Being? I cannot but observe that all the dishes are incomparably well prepared or cooked (so the anatomist would conclude); and also that they consist of such viands as are suited to the particular beings for whom they are intended (so the physiologist would expect); and it is at the same time apparent, that the various dishes are arranged between each other with a degree of order and regularity very flattering to the eye, and which evidently indicates a preconcerted design. If, in dwelling on this beautiful symmetry before me, I find certain dishes repeated, and placed opposite to each other, simply for no other reason than that uniformity may be preserved; or if even, instead of dishes, other ornaments, not eatable, are introduced in their places, am I to conclude that these have been brought in without any intention? No, certainly; I see in them, on the contrary, proofs of a genuine love of symmetry, order, and beauty. This is precisely what nature has done on a grander scale;

scale; the deductions to be made from the symmetry in it correct in no small degree every thing that appears to our limited capacities defective in the theory of final causes; and they tend not only to resolve many of the apparent difficulties against a general order and design in the universe, but to convert those very difficulties into proofs of that order and design.

The author's canons, or rules, for the formation of classes, families, or orders, genera, and species, are clearly and fully detailed in the succeeding chapters of *Taxonomy*. They are partly founded on and never contradict the sound principles laid down in Linné's immortal work, the *Philosophia Botanica*: but many additional rules are given, especially concerning the fruit and seed, in a knowledge of which the great Swede was very deficient. Here, however, the author's remarks have been so curtailed and transposed by M. Sprengel as to lose half their force and beauty, and we can scarcely find "*dissecta membra poetæ*." Lastly, M. Decandolle sums up the characters by which those divisions in the vegetable kingdom, called by him classes, orders, and genera, ought to be defined.

A *Class* is a primary division of vegetables, founded on organs of very great importance: 1st, The embryo, and every part which is more immediately necessary for its production; 2dly, The structure of the vessels in the organs devoted to nutrition; considering all these in two points of view, 1st, Their presence or absence; 2dly, Their situation with respect to each other. Of such classes, three only are at present known, *Acotyledones*, *Monocotyledones*, and *Dicotyledones*.

A *Family* (Anglicè, *Order*) is a groupe of vegetables formed with the same general symmetry of their primary and secondary organs; that is to say, where they are all naturally situated in an uniform manner. Of these, 161 are already established, and the additional knowledge daily obtained both of old and new plants is rapidly increasing the number.

A *Genus* is a division of an order of vegetables founded on the number, size, figure, and coherence of their various parts.

As every groupe of vegetables may be naturally more or less subdivided, in proportion to the number of individual species which it contains, it becomes of great consequence to determine how often it will be artificially useful to give common appellations or names to these divisions; and M. Decandolle has never in practice confined himself to the three above mentioned. Here we contend strongly for adhering to the canons of the *Philosophia Botanica*. From the late Mr. Dryander we learnt that, in a *Collegium Privatissimum* of lectures, as Linné called them, which he read to him and the son of a Swedish nobleman,

nobleman, he dwelt on this subject more particularly than in those which were published by Giseke; confessing to his hearers that, as he had divided *Philosophia Botanica* into 12 parts because there were 12 months in the year, and into 365 paragraphs because the year consisted of as many days, so he had divided vegetables themselves into five parcels with distinct names, because we had that number of fingers and toes: but that, if he lived to publish another edition of the work, he should add two more, making them analogous to the seven days in which the world was created; thus:

1. *Legiones tot agnoscimus Vegetabilium, quot numero Cotyledonum conveniunt; nempe Acotyledones, Monocotyledones, Dicotyledones, Polycotyledones.*

2. *Tribus tot, quot Classes situ præcipue staminum simili gaudent; 1mo. Fungi, Algæ, Musci, Filices; 2do. Palmæ, Gramina; 3to. Scitamineæ, Liliaceæ; 4to. Conlortæ, Personatæ, Verticillatæ; 5to. Calycanthemæ, Leguminosæ; 6to. Siliquosæ, Multisiliquæ? 7mo. Umbellatæ, Compositæ; 8vo. Amentaceæ, Coniferæ.*

3. *Classis est Ordinum plurium convenientia in aliquot partibus Floris et fructus.*

4. *Ordo est Generum plurium convenientia in aliquot partibus Floris et fructus.*

5. *Genera tot dicimus, quot similes flores et fructus proferunt diversæ species.*

6. *Species tot numeramus quot diversæ formæ secundum generationis leges producant alias sibi semper similes.*

7. *Varietates tot sunt, quot ex ejusdem speciei semine natæ, colore, magnitudine, plenitudine, et aliis levidensibus notis ludunt.*

The third part of this volume, called *Phytography*, or rules for naming and describing vegetables, follows *Glossology*, where some useful additions and modifications of those that have been hitherto known and practised are proposed: more especially the custom of translating the Latin specific names of plants into every other language. *Viola* affords a proof of the necessity of doing this; for, as it contains very few species, with yellow flowers, each botanist has called that a yellow violet in his native tongue which struck him as having the best claims to it. Thus the French have named *Biflora*, *Violette jaune*; the Americans, when they speak of *Pubescens*, say yellow violet; while, as M. Decandolle truly remarks, the *Viola lutea* itself, of Smith, has been improperly so denominated, two of its petals being purple. In giving names to his *Families*, (Linné's *Order*;) M. Decandolle takes them from the principal genus, adding one syllable, as *Ranunculaceæ* from *Ranunculus*, *Myrtinæ* from *Myrtus*, *Flacourtiaceæ* from *Flacourtia*; and the subdivisions of these families, which he calls *Tribus*, are denominated in the same way without adding a syllable, as *Ranunculeæ*

culeæ from *Ranunculus*, *Myrteæ* from *Myrtus*, *Placourteæ* from *Placourtia*. Here in practice he does not always conform to his own canons, and we object to them for several reasons; but more especially on account of the inevitable confusion which will arise if we apply names so nearly alike to the class and order. If the subdivision of one of his families depends on manifest and weighty differences, we consider it as a much sounder principle to elevate that subdivision into a separate order with a peculiar name, just as he proposes to elevate the subdivision of a genus, when necessary, to the rank of a genus; but, when the subdivisions of either orders or genera depend on characters of less consequence, we would not give them any name. Thus his *Clematideæ*, *Anemoneæ*, *Helleboreæ*, and *Ranunculeæ*, appear to us perfectly legitimate orders; and to join them altogether in one order, under the name of *Ranunculeæ*, lengthens the diagnosis of it very inconveniently.

The *Phytonomy*, or fourth part of these elements, is compiled entirely by M. Sprengel, and does him credit. He divides it into seven chapters, on the anatomy of plants, their chemical composition, their life, their geographical distribution, the means by which they have been so distributed, their diseases, and lastly, a history of botany; after which he gives 46 descriptions of plants, belonging to different classes and orders of the sexual system. Under their anatomy, he brings forwards an easy distinction between the spiral vessels of plants and the air vessels of insects; the former never dividing into branches without a new pair being placed on the side of the old vessels, while the latter undergo every kind of ramification. He says, "The pith vanishes in the hardest woods, because they press always more and more towards the centre, and, by uniting with the cells of the pith, render them at last completely indistinguishable." As far as our experience goes, this remark is not correct. In trees which have a pith of very narrow diameter, there may be some foundation for it: but in others, *Sambucus nigra* for instance, we have always found the centre filled with pith, or that substance wasted away without the space which it occupied being filled up; and we do not scruple to say, that in this tree it would be physically impossible.

In the 886th paragraph, M. Sprengel says that 'the distinction which still prevails in the work of Jussieu between the *Acotyledonous*, *Monocotyledonous*, *Dicotyledonous*, and *Polycotyledonous* plants, entirely vanishes on a more exact and more general observation of nature.' This we think may rank for absurdity with the idle criticisms of those astronomers who have attacked the Principia of Newton. Allowing, even, that the *Fungi*, *Algæ*, and *Lichenes* are agamous, and propagated by spores only,

only; these germs are so extremely similar to seeds, and the extremity in them first developed is so analogous to an embryo, that we prefer to regard it as such, consisting of a root and plumula without cotyledons. In *Monocotyledones* a cotyledonous extremity is never wanting; and in *Dioscorea* the transition to *Dicotyledones* is so nearly completed, that formerly we regarded *Dioscorea* and *Menispermum* as connecting links of *Monocotyledones* and *Dicotyledones*, though we now believe that a still closer affinity exists between *Aristolochia* and *Aroideæ*. In *Coniferae*, M. Sprengel objects to call their first leaves cotyledons without a shadow of reason, their analogy to the cotyledons of other *Dicotyledones* being as strong as possible, in every point; and they are not always verticillated, but confined to two in number both in *Taxus* and *Arucaria*. The true *Dicotyledones*, on the other hand, sometimes occur with more than two cotyledons; we have twice observed three in *Phaseolus*, three in the *Hazel-nut* and *Oak*, (though in these two last genera they remain under ground,) from three to five in *Citrus*, and three and four in *Eugenia Jambon*.

Respecting the geographical distribution of vegetables, M. Sprengel states justly that, the lower or more imperfect their organization is, the more general they become: thus *Fungi*, *Algae*, *Lichens*, and even *Mosses* are found every where, provided that the situation be favourable to their growth, and the *Neimides* exist in almost all still waters. 'The same distance from the Equator,' he observes, 'produces rather a resemblance in form, an agreement in the genus and orders, than in the species. The same degrees of latitude in the southern and the northern hemisphere are connected with very different temperatures, and produce a completely different vegetation in the temperate and the frigid zones, that of tropical climates being nearly the same over all the earth.' On the contrary, we must remark that nothing can be much more different than the intertropical plants of the old and the new continents, as they are vaguely called.

The summer in the southern hemisphere is shorter, because the motion of the earth in her perigee is more rapid; it is there also colder, because the great quantity of ice over the vast extent of sea requires more heat for dissolving it than can be obtained; and because the sunbeams are not reflected from the glass surface of the sea-water in such quantity as to afford the proper degree of heat. Hence, in that hemisphere the flora of the Pole extends nearer to the Equator than in the northern, and under 53 and 54 south latitude we meet with plants which correspond with the Arctic flora. We must recollect, however, that in

South America the great chain of the Andes stretches from the tropic almost without interruption to the straits of Magellan; and on this account tropical forms are seen in that southern frigid zone, for the tract of mountains every where determines the vegetation.

Other points well discussed by M. Sprengel are the soil which certain plants affect; similar plants occurring in similar soils, completely separated from each other, where no supposition of any communication can be entertained. The height

of their station above the level of the sea has a wonderful influence on the growth and even existence of others; and an equality in this respect does not produce universally the same forms. The growth of certain plants in society is very interesting. Some cover extensive tracts of country together, as *Erica vulgaris*, *Aira canescens*, *Vaccinium Myrtillus*, and *Jasione montana*; while others, like the Cedar of Lebanon, *Forstera sedifolia*, and *Disa longicornis*, remain insulated within very narrow bounds. With respect to the manner in which vegetables have originated and been distributed, we believe with M. Sprengel that the greater part belong properly to the countries in which they grow: but we are firmly convinced that they have there sprung by an intercourse with another very slowly, and long before the earth was inhabited by the larger and more perfect animals. The remains of the former vegetable world, which existed before the Deluge, consist chiefly of Grasses and Ferns, the latter always destitute of fructifications; a fact for which it has puzzled all the naturalists with whom we have conversed to account. On the monstrosities and diseases of plants, M. Sprengel says very little that is new, but nothing that is not interesting and amusing.

The 'History of Botany' has been so often copied by one author from another, from Tournefort, Adanson, and Linné to the writers of our own day, that the present author might well have omitted this chapter, which contains nothing material that he had not previously inserted in his *Historia Rei Herbariae*. — The descriptions with which he terminates the work are much more valuable; and both *docti* and *indocti* have to regret that he has not published others arranged according to their natural affinities; though he does not omit to tell us what is known and even more than was known before on this head, especially explaining the reasons for placing each genus in such an order. We shall therefore finish our account with what he says respecting the affinity of our common indigenous plant, the *Hippuris vulgaris*.

The first authors who arranged this plant in a natural order (Ray, &c.) placed it beside *Ceratophyllum*, *Myriophyllum*, and *Zannichellia*, and immediately after it *Pilularia*. Linné and Batsch

did the same in an order called *Imbricata*, the latter denoting very improperly any albumen in their seeds. Jussieu placed it first on his *Nagea*, and *Chora* after it: but Adanson first thought of a higher place for it among his *Eleagni*, which arrangement Jussieu now approves; and Decandolle has lastly placed it among *Onagrea*. If we attend to its central bundle of spiral vessels and situate on the surface, and recollect that essential differences of ordinal structure always correspond with differences in the seed and external parts, Adanson's idea gains considerable strength. If we compare *Eleagnus* and *Hippophæ* with *Hippuris*, their seeds and position of embryo will be found very similar. Instead of the nut of *Hippuris*, indeed, the others have a drupe, which is not of much ordinal importance. The calyx, which in *Hippuris* is not unfolded, in *Eleagnus* consists of four, and in *Hippophæ* of two parts, but in both cases it stands above the fruit.

The plates in this volume are excellent, containing faithful figures illustrating the genera of *Citrus*, *Cardioperitum*, *Centaurea*, *Thlaspi*, *Thuia*, *Alnus*, *Strelitzia*, *Leyssera*, *Vicia*, *Geranium*, *Asterocephalus*, *Anona*, *Agaricus*, *Barytis*, *Sinapis*, *Rasella*, *Ochna*, *Justicia*, *Peziza*, *Neckera*, *Hymnum*, *Aspidium*, *Hydrogaton*, *Chironia*, *Oxalis*, *Lobelia*, *Phyllanthus*, *Piqueria*, *Cornea*, *Acacia*, *Salvia*, *Myoporum*, *Barleria*, *Vellutaria*, *Salix*, *Mespilus*, *Alpinia*, &c. &c.

ART. IX. *Horæ Britannicæ*; or, Studies in Ancient British History, containing various Disquisitions on the National and Religious Antiquities of Great Britain. By John Hughes. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 400 in each. Hatchard, &c.

WE have here a curious and erudite work, comprizing a great mass of dissertation and information concerning Cimbric archæology: but the arrangement is not neat, the instruction is not select, and the criticism is not judicious. Ill authenticated tradition is mistaken for historic fact, and the dreams of credulity are placed on a level with the inferences of research. The completeness of the intelligence compiled would, however, deserve much gratitude, if references had every where been given to the respective authorities, so as to facilitate the re-examination and re-appreciation of the assertions and propositions adopted by the author.

The first part treats of the primitive population and early history of the isle of Britain, and of the commencement of the Roman period. These sections are again subdivided into chapters, which should have been numbered in the index, and which discuss the name of the island, the historical documents of the Britons, the Welsh chronicles, traditions, and

poems, the primæval tribes of settlers, their languages, manners, arts, and civilization. The laws of Dunwal Moelmud and of Howel are examined; and, somewhat anachronically, the author next goes back to the invasion of Julius Cæsar, and to the history of Caractacus, Boadicea, Galgacus, and other British princes, who were involved in conflicts with the Romans.

In his fifth, sixth, and seventh chapters, which Mr. Hughes allots to the languages used by the primæval colonists, we do not find clear and just ideas of the distinction between the stem-tribes. We would observe, in the first place, that all European population appears to be of Asiatic origin; and that all the population of the European north came by land, and on the north side of the Euxine. The earliest wave of population which flowed into Hungary first, thence into Germany, and thence into France, was the Gallic; having the Erse or Gaelic language for its dialect. The second wave of population, which pushed the Gauls continually more and more westward, was the Cimbric; having the Pelasgic, Belgic, or Welsh, (for these three are only different spellings of the same radical appellation,) for its language. The third, and, with respect to Britain, the last wave of population, was the Gothic; having for its language the dialect which we call Saxon. The progress of these tribes can be traced in the antient historians; they occur first in the north of Greece, then in the north of Italy, and always in the same geographical position; the Gauls on the west, and the Goths on the east, of the Cimbri. When these tribes reached France, the Gauls, who arrived first, named the country, and drove their herds down the valley of the Loire; the Cimbri, who arrived next, named Flanders, and drove their goats down the valley of the Seine; the Goths, who arrived last, named the Dutch provinces, and drove their sheep down the valley of the Rhine. From the mouth of the Loire, Ireland was colonized by Gauls, as the state of language proves. From the mouth of the Seine, Devonshire was colonized by Cimbri, as the distribution of language on the western coast of England seems to evince. From the mouth of the Rhine, the estuary of the Thames and all the more northerly part of the eastern coast was colonized by Goths, as the distribution of language on that coast manifests.

Concerning the Caledonians, it may be disputed whether they were Gauls from Ireland, or Cimbri from Cumberland, or Picts, (that is, Gothic *reges*, or pirates,) from Northumberland: but Mr. Pinkerton has long ago shown, from Beda, that the present Highlanders are an Irish colony, of introduction far subsequent to the time of Agricola; and that General

gives it as his own opinion that the Caledonians were of German extraction. "*Namque rutile Caledoniam habitantium comites magni artus Germanicam originem asseverant.*" Now, as the Lowlanders are clearly Goths, and the Highlanders clearly Gauls, and as there are no residual traces of the third language in Scotland, it is reasonable to presume that the Caledonians are the ancestors of the Lowlanders, and of Gothic stem. Many names of rivers and mountains, which Mr. Chalmers would derive from the Erse language, are in fact of Gothic origin.

Chapter x. agitates again the question of language, and subdivides the Cimbric into the several cognate dialects preserved in Cumberland, Cornwall, and Britany. It is recommended strenuously to some Welsh scholar to acquire the last of these tongues, and to translate into it the Bible; which, the present author says, the natives of Armorica do not possess in their vernacular tongue.

Part II. contains disquisitions on the learning, religious rites, and mythology of the Druids; and on the somewhat distinct religion of the Gaelish tribes, who do not appear to have been subjected to the Bardic discipline. Druidism, whenever derived, is a feature peculiar to the Cimbric race. Mr. Hughes thus approaches the difficult question whether the Druids were polytheists or monotheists; the testimony of classical antiquity ranking them with the worshippers of many gods; while the evidence of domestic documents classes them with the adorers of one only God.

The following specimens of Bardic metaphysics, whether, as to the sentiments, they can be referred to an age previous to the Christian, I leave to the judicious reader to decide. Some may, however, be surprised to find so much abstraction of thought among our Cambrian Bards.

Theological Triads.

There are three primeval *Unities*, and more than one of each cannot exist: *one God, one truth, and one point of liberty*; and this is where all opposites equiponderate.

Three things proceed from the three primeval *Unities*: all of life, all that is good, and all power.

Three things are essential to the Duty; consummate life, consummate knowledge, and consummate power; and of what is consummate, (or the greatest of all,) there can be no more than one of any thing.

Three things it is impossible God should not be; whatever perfect goodness should be, whatever perfect goodness would be, and whatever perfect goodness can perform.

Three things it is impossible that God should not perform: what is most beneficial, what all want most, and what is most beautiful of all things.

The three stabilities of existence : what cannot be otherwise, what need not be otherwise, and what cannot be conceived better, and in these will all things end.

Three things will infallibly be done : all that is possible for the power, for the wisdom, and for the love of God to perform.

The three grand attributes of God : infinite plenitude of life, of knowledge, and of power.

The production of all animated beings is said to proceed from Divine wisdom, Divine power, and Divine love.

In a former part of this work we have given a summary of the *Platonic* doctrine respecting mankind as moral agents, founded on the system of future retribution, in connection with the tenet of transmigration : we shall, for another purpose, hereafter take further notice of those topics. But in the *Aphoristic Triads* just now laid before the reader the unity, self-existence, the infinite power and wisdom of the Deity are so explicitly allowed, that such sentiments as these Triads contain, cannot, with any consistency, be ascribed to the Heathen Druids : at the same time the mode of reasoning is so very singular, that it will be no easy task to decide from whence our bards derived conceptions so sublime in themselves, and so peculiar in the style and mode of expression. (The light of Christianity alone could make known the unity of the Divine Being, but it does appear that the Bards retained among them, from remote ages, a certain philosophy, which they blended with Christianity, and made its doctrines subservient to the dogmas of their ancient metaphysical creed.

The style of composition in which these Triads are written is abstruse and curious ; and shews that, in past ages, there were a set of men among the Welsh much addicted to metaphysical speculations.

If the Druid sages were strictly of the same sentiments with Pythagoras and his disciples, with respect to the existence of the Divine Being ; they maintained that the Supreme Intelligence presided over all nature, as the production of His own Divine power and wisdom.

The theology of Pythagoras is thus succinctly given by the Chevalier Ramsay : —

“ God is neither the object of sense, nor subject to passion ; but invisible, purely intelligible, and supremely intelligent. In His body, He is like the light : and in His soul, He resembles truth. He is the universal Spirit that pervades and diffuses itself over all nature. All beings receive their life from Him ; there is but one God, who is not, as some are apt to imagine, seated above the world, beyond the orb of the universe ; but, being all in Himself, He sees all the beings that inhabit His immensity. He is the sole principle, the light of heaven, the Father of all. He produces every thing. He is the reason, the life, and the motion, of all beings.”

These expressions convey, on the face of them, a doctrine advanced by an inspired writer ; who adopted the language of Epimenides the poet, as the vehicle of the sublimest views of the

Divine nature, "In Him we live, and move, and have our being; for we are His offspring." But if we carefully study five expressions in the elegants, and take them in that sense to which they were evidently designed to be applied, they will not be found to convey the exalted sentiments we may, at first view, be disposed to attach to them. The beautiful lines of the Epicurean Virgil convey only the passion of the *anima mundi*, or the mighty coërgies of nature; and very few of the Heathen carried their views any further. In some of the Grecian philosophers we almost think, at times, that we perceive a glimpse of the sublime doctrine of the unity of God; but we are again lost in the confusion of polytheism. Thus in the traditions we have respecting the Druids we may think that we perceive something of the same grand truth; but all their superstitions, and their fabulous theology, soon deceive us; and we find ourselves nearly lost in the labyrinth of polytheism.

We are sorry to see this author presently afterward listening to the wild conjectures of Bryant, talking about heliocratic superstition, and ascribing it to antient Britons. An appendix treats of the worship of rocks, sacred caverns, and groves; on a language, in which dissertation the Gimbriæ is classed as a dialect of Slavonian; and on the origin of letters, which are every where mere modifications of the Hebrew alphabet.

The second volume treats of the introduction of Christianity into Great Britain, of the progress and history of the British church, and of the celebrated Pelagian heresy; concerning which it would have been worth while to observe that Saint Augustine attacked Pelagius in Latin rhymes, which are the earliest known. Hence it has been inferred that Saint Augustine was retaliating a Welsh form of attack; and that the Welsh language has taught to all others the use of rhyme. The council of Vortigern, the state of the British church from the era of the Saxon invasion, and even the conversion of the Anglo-saxons by Augustine and his followers, are narrated. In that part of ecclesiastical history which concerns Wales, much meritorious research is here displayed, and many details are given which have escaped Rapin, and other historians. This is indeed the best portion of the work. One critical conjecture ought not to have been overlooked at p. 69, where the acts of a Gallican council are quoted, which was held at Arles in 514, and subscribed by Eborius, *Episcopus de civitate Eboracensi*, Restitutus, *Episcopus de civitate Londnensi*, and Adelphus, *Episcopus de civitate colonia Londinensium*. Here

Mr. Hughes hesitates about the city meant; but we should decide for Caer Leon, as being one of the three original dioceses.

From the ninth chapter, which relates to the battles of Arthur, and has some historical merit, we transcribe a portion :

The great battles are ascribed to Arthur, fought either in the north, or in the west of England. Of these battles, they may all have been real actions; but in all probability this prince was present at few only of them; as Arthur had no real authority, but in Cornwall and Wales; although by his alliance with Medred, as prince of Cumberland, some transactions in the north are ascribed to him. He was engaged in many domestic contests; but it is probable he never had any engagement of consequence with the Saxons, until he headed the British force, at the battle of Badon Mount, near Bath.

This decisive battle was fought with Kenric, A. D. 520, according to Lishar; or 530, according to other accounts. The last will agree with that old chronology preserved in the *red book* of Hergot; and given in the *Cambrian Register*. According to the statement there contained, 128 years expired from the age of Gwrthayrn (or Vortigern) to the battle of Badon, in which Arthur and the British chiefs overcame the Saxons. Twenty-two years further expired from thence to the battle of Camlan, and the death of the British hero.

A little previous to this was fought the battle of *Llongworth*, recorded by the muse of the venerable Llwarch. A chief of Devonshire, called *Gwaint ap Erbin*, fell in that contest; and his slay is preserved among the remains of the Cumbrian Bard, who gives a poetic description of the battle in all the horrors that attend war and slaughter. Mr. Turner, very plausibly conjectures that this was the unfortunate battle fought with *Pont*, on his first landing at the place, called still by his name, *Portsmouth*. Another of Arthur's battles is mentioned by Llwarch; it was fought on the Llawen; and the Bard lost *Gwen*, his favourite son. The bravery of this youth is set forth in expressive and laconic terms by his father. "As he was my son, he did not recede." Llwarch had been driven from his territory in the north, and he, with his sons, found a refuge in Powys, and valiantly continued to support the British cause.

In the battle of Bath, or Badon Mount, Arthur defeated the Saxons under Kenric. Previous to this, Gildas, who dates his birth at this time, says, the Saxons and the native Britons alternately prevailed; but here the victory was decisive. In consequence of the success of Arthur in this engagement, the Silurian territories were preserved inviolate; and the natives left in possession of the country to the west of the Severn.

This famous battle is noticed by an ancient Bard, in the following stanza:—
 Arthur ben baddon y llawen iu gachion
 Gwaint ap Erbin y llawen iu gachion
 Gwaint ap Erbin y llawen iu gachion
 Gwaint ap Erbin y llawen iu gachion

Woe to them, the miserable ones, because of the action at Badon.

Arthur was at the head of the brave, when the blades were red with blood.

He avenged on his enemies the blood of warriors:

Warriors who had been the defence of the kings of the north.

Arthur, according to the notions of Geoffrey of Monmouth, is said to have achieved the highest renown by his battles on the continent and in Ireland as well as in his native isle; and even as to his invincible prowess at home, it has been greatly exaggerated, so that his very existence has been called in question. Ilo Gerdion, being the seat of the Silurian princess, was Arthur's court; he had also a palace in Cornwall, probably at Leamwithick, and another at Penryn in Cumberland. All the princes of the Cymry acknowledged his authority, and willingly followed him for many years in battle; but he was not invincible, he was unfortunate like other heroes, and had to retreat before Kerdio, his powerful antagonist, who, in spite of Arthur and the Britons, established himself in the kingdom of Wessex.

All the contests of Arthur were not fought with the Saxons, for he was engaged in domestic contests with native chieftains, and his ambition procured him enemies, and his friends acted a treacherous part towards him. These circumstances led to the disastrous battle of Camlan, where this valiant prince fell a prey to civil discord.

Modred, the nephew of Arthur, being the son of his sister Anna, married to a chieftain in the north, acted a base and unworthy part. This young prince seduced the queen, and eloped with her into Cumberland, where he fomented disturbances; and, rather than submit himself to his uncle and his sovereign, he raised a civil war; and thus the British princes, who ought to have had one common interest, spent their strength in domestic feuds. The consequence of this state of discord was the ruin of the native kingdom, by the loss of the brave Arthur, who fell by the hands of the perfidious Modred.

There appears to be plausible reasons for disputing the scene of this action, which brought the life and reign of Arthur to a termination. Camlan is supposed to have been in Cornwall, and this seems to be confirmed by the account handed down to us of the interment of the prince in the isle of Avalon, or Glastonbury, where his corpse might easily have been conveyed by water. But as the territory of Modred was in the north, the fatal battle most probably was fought on that side of the island; and it may have been at Kirby Lonsdale, agreeable to the opinion of Mr. Carte. This, however, if admitted, entirely does away the magnificent tale of Arthur's interment among the holy martyrs and glorious saints at Glastonbury.

As to the account of Arthur's interment at Glastonbury, it rests upon the authority of Giraldus Cambrensis; a writer, it is true, too respectable to fabricate a tale, but easily induced to credit every thing of the marvellous. This celebrated character, who flourished in the reign of Henry II., affirms that he was present at the abbey when a leaden cross was taken up, with an inscription in rude, but legible characters, to this effect:

HIC JACET SEPULTUS
INCLYTUS REX ARTHURUS
IN INSULA AVALONIA.

An

An appendix contains the antiquities of St. Alban's, Glastonbury, Caerleon, Lantwit Major, the Cornish cathedral (which we are for dedicating, with Mr. Whitaker, to St. Geranus,) and Whithorn. On the controversy respecting Easter, on the splendor of the Saxon churches, on the last days of the venerable Bede, (whose entire works ought to be edited in Great Britain,) on Arthur's grave, and on the Welsh and Breton languages, farther observations occur. Mr. Pinkerton's writings, which throw great light on many topics here discussed, have been improperly neglected in the pages before us; since, although his tone may be somewhat flippant and unduly positive, yet the extent of his erudition and the acuteness of his penetration render his opinions always worthy of investigation, and his authority commonly deserving of consideration.

We recommend it to this divaricating writer, in a future edition, to class his topics more strictly; to bring together in one place all that relates to one subject; and not so cautiously to shun the appearance of pedantry, but faithfully to quote the authority on which the statements repose; some of them being so conjectural that the means of verification ought not to be withheld.

ART. X. *The History of the Rise and Progress of the Judicial or Adawlut System, as established for the Administration of Justice, under the Presidency of Bengal. — Part II. An Inquiry into the supposed Existence of the Trial by Jury in India, with some Account of the late proposed Alterations in the Judicial System, under the Presidency of Fort St. George.* 8vo. pp. 200. Booth. 1820.

MUCH has been written concerning our empire in India*; yet the events which have happened in that region have scarcely been deemed worthy of a liberal curiosity, though lately, perhaps, they are attracting more of that public attention which they merit. Local remoteness seems to have made us insensible to the close proximity of interest, and to the strict ties of political union, by which the inhabitants of that extensive territory are incorporated with Great Britain. This state of things, however, is not altogether problematical. Indian details, consisting of transactions uninteresting from the uniformity of their character and the comparative lowness of their agents, and for the most part unrelieved by the interposition of great counsels and striking events, seem at first

* See particularly the important work of Mr. Mill, Art. VI. of this Number.

sight to promise nothing that can reward a study of them. Yet this is damper, not a real insignificance. As soon as we have reconciled ourselves to names which it is so difficult to understand or to pronounce, and have become familiar to that strange anomaly which, instead of heroes and sovereigns, exhibits a mercantile company disposing of empires and weighing out the destinies of nations, we shall perceive that the history of few countries abounds in reverses of fortune more interesting, and revolutions of power more awful. Still, we are only half awake to all that is transacting in that part of the globe; and, though we are in the habit of considering it as a comfortable resource for younger children, and gladly avail ourselves of the patronage which secures a magnificent provision for those who are educated to its civil or its military departments, we feel but little other solicitude for its concerns: reading of the conquests and wars that change the whole face of the country with as much apathy as if they were the skirmishings (to use Milton's expression of the Saxon heptarchy) of kites and crows in the air.

Such, then, being the prevailing inattention to Indian subjects in general, it can scarcely be expected that a tract like that which is now before us, relating to its municipal regulations, will obtain much notice. The subject, however, is widely — we might add, awfully — important; involving the civil happiness and rights of the eighty millions of people, whom the mysterious ordinances of Providence have placed under our dominion. The author, although an advocate for several of the most defective parts of the judicial system, suggests many important improvements; and his book merits the peculiar consideration of those, who have a share in the councils by which that stupendous empire is administered.

We shall endeavour to explain to our readers, as concisely as we may, the nature of the judicial regulations of India: a subject so little understood here, that it will at least have the recommendation of novelty to those who are anxious to augment their stores of general information.

The British power in India rests mainly on a monstrous fiction. We hold our possessions there as nominal feudatories of the Mogul, a domination which once overshadowed the earth, but of which, at present, the name only exists on paper. By a grant in the year 1765, the Emperor of Delhi conveyed in perpetuity the revenue and the right of administering the justice of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. The revenue was at first collected, and justice administered, by the natives: but these native functionaries were gradually superseded, and in 1770 councils consisting of Europeans were appointed

appointed to superintend the administration of justice and the collection of the revenue. This, however, was a form of government intrinsically vicious; and in 1772 the company appears as the "Dewan," that is, the supreme head, and the great native powers dwindled into state-pensioners.

We pass over several intermediate plans of municipal polity. In 1790 the Governor-general accepted (the equivocal term employed by the Company, in all its political transactions with the native powers,) the administration of criminal justice throughout the provinces: the Nizamut Adawlut (supreme court of appeal) was removed to Calcutta, and vested in the Governor-general and council: courts of circuit were formed, to each of which two civil servants were appointed as judges; and an establishment of native law-officers was appointed in each of the great provinces. In 1798, the important change, called the establishment of the great code of general regulations, took place under Marquis Cornwallis, which has subsisted to the present day. This was also a new era in the political, financial, and military departments; and it is certain that each of them is considerably indebted to the energy and clearness of that nobleman's excellent understanding. In every district, or zillah, a single judge or magistrate was allotted to a zillah-court for the cognizance of civil causes: but the decision of the zillah-court is not final; a provincial court of appeal entertains appeals from it; and there the judgment is decisive in questions of real property not exceeding 100 rupees of annual produce, and of personal property not above 1000. Over these was erected the Sudder Dewannee Adawlut, at the presidency; a court of final appeal in cases in which the matter at issue exceeded the above amount, till 1797, when an appeal to the King in council was given, if the property litigated amounted to 5000*l.* and upwards.

The legislative constitutions of Lord Cornwallis established the most beneficial improvement that the people of Hindustan have ever experienced, through the long succession of those dynasties which have usurped or administered their governments. In 1793, for the first time, the property in the soil, which had heretofore been a precarious usufruct, was absolutely vested in the land-holders; and the revenue payable to government, which had been liable to perpetual and arbitrary variations, was fixed for ever: while the office of judge and collector, which had formerly imposed on the same individual the most repugnant duties, was separated, and their respective functions accurately defined.

Having thus stated the system, says the intelligent author of this tract, we may be allowed to pause and contemplate its general

to the separating of offices and the division of duties, in the gradation of courts and the body of laws prescribed, and fixed for the guidance of these, we find all the machinery of a regular system; but we do not find that artists have been prepared to guide the work. Laws have been instituted before lawyers were formed to interpret and administer them. The growth of the one part of the subject has been too rapid for the other. Laws are nothing without the habits suited to these. The excellence of such a plan, in the abstract, can never be called in question by the cultivated European mind: the question of more difficult solution is, as to its fitness for an Indian state of society. Laws should be formed, we are told, in reference to manners, and not the latter forced to bend to the former. The manners of a people are the growth of the climate, of religion, of circumstances, and of time. These combinations unite, in a singular degree, to give a marked and indelible character to the manners of India. But the laws, it is said, are preserved; the manner of executing these is only changed.

All change in legislation is an experiment, and time, the great legislator, can only determine the excellence of the present system.

We apprehend, however, that in the Indian code of regulations, time has added another illustration of the unsuitness and incompetency of all *a priori* codes to the wants of human societies: for those regulations have now expanded from one moderately sized folio into seven thick volumes; a bulk three times more extensive than the whole body of the civil law. In India the multiplicity of laws has been sorely felt. If in the juridical systems of those countries, — where laws have gradually grown up with other institutions, and have accommodated themselves to the moral habits of the people, — the inconvenience of a multifarious code is, notwithstanding, a legitimate topic of complaint, still the evil has been mitigated by the skill and learning of those who, being trained and disciplined to the interpretation of the laws, and to great quickness of exposition and promptitude in tracing their analogies, correct their complexity by uniformity of decision: — but this must not be expected in India. Certainly, the number of these regulations, and the constant changes which they are undergoing, indicate a laudable solicitude on the part of the British government for the well-being of the natives: yet, as law ought to be a rule of action, it loses its effect if it be variable, contradictory, and changeful.

The difficulty of construction from the many references, in the regulation to another, and often references to a reference, which is to depend upon a third and fourth allusion, occasions much difficulty to even a European reader: to a native the difficulty must be increased.

It might too much resemble verbal criticism, to justify this remark by particular quotations; but no justification will be

thought

thought necessary by those who have had frequent occasion to consult the regulations.

A great proportion of the code is made to consist of **expedient matter**. The legislative sense is lost in the discursive matter with which it is surrounded. To remedy every misinterpretation of the laws by new enactments, is an endless labour. The proper and natural remedy is to be found in the exposition of the law which the superior court gives in cases brought in appeal before it.

By the regulations passed in reference to one of the Hindoo temples, (the pagoda of Jagournaut,) great care is taken to secure the sanctity of the place from the hands of any but the priests. Amongst other rules to that effect it is enacted, that the revenue bailiffs, or peons of the collector, shall not enter the temple.

But this regulation is hardly passed before another is issued, to declare that it was not intended to prevent the peons of the collector from entering the temple for the purpose of devotion, the same as any other class of Hindoos. Nothing certainly could be more unnecessary than any explanation to this effect. In every civil case where the law is doubtful, the interpretation of the statute is part of the statute itself.

Delay in the administration of law is a cardinal defect in its constitution. We could speak of a time when the causes in arrear amounted, in one of the provinces subject to the Madras presidency, to 2000 ! There must, consequently, be something radically wrong in the system.—In his Majesty's courts in India, on the other hand, of which (as our readers ought to be apprized) the jurisdiction does not extend beyond their respective settlements, a brisk and uninterrupted administration of justice is maintained, and no accumulation of business is allowed to occur. The present author has, we think, satisfactorily accounted for this difference.

The period of time which a suit may occupy, from its first institution in the inferior court to its ultimate decision in the Sudder Dewannee Adawlut, may be estimated, from a view of the cases reported in 1805, and the period preceding; the longest term that any cause had remained undecided being twelve and thirteen; and the lowest three years: one case, indeed, had run the length of twenty-one years. An appeal to the King in council will extend the ultimate decision to a further period of two years. In England a suit seldom lasts longer than seven or twelve months; an appeal is regarded as tedious which occupies three years. There is nothing which men are so unwilling to do as to pay money, few choosing to do so before the law compels. But this unwillingness is naturally increased, from the delay which must attend an application to a court of justice in Bengal. How then can it be a matter of surprise to see so many causes on the file? The debtor smiles at the institution of a suit which he knows cannot be heard for many years. He enjoys, in the mean time, the

use of the money, and all the profits of trade, in a country where the returns greatly exceed the legal interest; and although he may foresee that the law-charges will ultimately fall heavy upon him, yet in the enjoyment of the present hour, and in the various chances in his favour which procrastination has a tendency to produce, he shuts his eyes to all the consequences. Time can seldom strengthen proof; it is calculated to weaken and destroy it altogether; it is therefore favourable to the debtor. Instead of inducing men to pay their debts, our courts hold out the strongest temptation to withhold payment.

The "original sin," if we may be allowed the expression, of the Company's courts in India may be traced to two causes;—first, that the judges are not educated to the legal science, but taken indiscriminately from the civil service;—secondly, that, instead of an enlightened Bar, (the most efficient security for the correct interpretation and upright administration of law,) Vakeels, or black pleaders, are permitted to exercise the function of advocates. The first evil does not seem to have been so present to the mind of this well informed writer as we should have expected: but to us it has always appeared gigantic. Men are one day employed in the commercial, the next in the diplomatic, and at another time in the revenue-department. On a sudden, an order of government transforms them into Judges! How, then, can it be matter of surprize that the progress of the courts is tardy, that the judgments are contradictory, and that the appeals are dilatory and vexatious? For our part, we know not any set of men more unfitted for the judicial function than the civil servants of the Company. Sent out at a period of life which is usually dedicated to the work of education, in a premature state of the disposition and the reason, before experience has stored up its maxims or prudence impressed its warnings, they find themselves suddenly transplanted into a new country, surrounded by new men, new manners, and new institutions. The first gaze of astonishment is scarcely over before they are invested with great power, and commissioned to govern others when they have not yet learnt to govern themselves. Of that difficult empire, which is founded on the habitual controul of the passions and the subjugation of the will, they have scarcely acquired the elements. School-boys without tutors, and minors without guardians, they advance not through the gradual transitions of office and of probationary labour, but emerge at once to the highest judicial authorities; and, though untinctured with law, either general or municipal, they ascend to functions which learned age and ripened experience would tremble to administer. How different is the course of legal education in every

every European country; where the controversies of the bar and the toils of the desk teach the practitioner, at every step, to appreciate the perplexities and difficulties of the science; and to frame a just estimate of the strength of his reason by measuring it according to the infirmity of his nature, rather than the overheated presumptions of youth.

The writer before us is unanswerable in his argument for an European bar instead of black pleaders; and we strongly recommend it to the attentive perusal of those who are connected with the administration of Indian affairs in England. They may, however, be summed up in these leading objections: viz. the mercenary character of the Vakeels, whose interest it is to stir up litigation; — the inaptitude of the natives to that verbal conciseness of pleading, which brings the cause to an instantaneous issue; — their ignorance of law altogether, and their anxiety to cloud their want of knowledge by multiplying words and delaying the cause; — their want of discernment as to the strength or the weakness of a case; — and consequently their overloading every trial by a much greater number of witnesses than are necessary: — a practice in the courts of Adawlut so common, that the court is distracted by the contradictions and varieties of the testimony adduced before it. We would subjoin a part of the author's reasoning on this branch of the subject, but cannot afford space for the farther extension of this article: which we conclude by again recommending the present publication to all who feel or ought to feel an interest in the subjects which it discusses.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR OCTOBER, 1821.

NOVELS.

Art. 11. *A Tale of the Olden Time.* By a Harrow Boy. 12mo. pp. 174. Boards. Andrews. 1821.

The modest motto prefixed by the 'Harrow Boy' to this little story, "*meo primo juvenili errore*," and the early age of sixteen, are ample apologies for its imperfections. Yet many persons of maturer years would be happy to incur the reproach due to its faults if they could emulate its beauties. The plot is, indeed, far from being striking or original. Phillippa, a sort of Lady Macbeth, urges the weakness and indecision of her husband Lord Rupert to murder his brother Earl Montresor, and his infant-child, in order to possess himself of the castle and feudal honours of that nobleman: but the conspiracy is in both instances defeated, and the conclusion is happy. Emma, an orphan under the protection of the

the Lady Isabella and her husband, is a primary agent in rescuing the infant from the snares prepared for its destruction. — The following passage is a highly ornamented specimen of the author's powers of description ; — powers which, it is not rash to predict, may, in their future developement be a valuable accession to the literary talents of the country.

In deep meditation on the means to be pursued, she seated herself at the window of her apartment. The prospect before her, glowing with the brilliant splendour of the newly-risen sun, seemed doubly beautiful. The gentle rippling of the distant ocean, lightly agitated by the breezes of the morning, glittered to the sun-beams; and immediately beneath, for Emma's apartment was situated high on the western tower, she looked down upon the extensive forests, now richly variegated with the yellow tints of autumn. All creation seemed to live in beauty, and to be instinct with joy. The martin, which, secure from injury by her protection, built his little nest annually above her window, was now in many a mazy circle skimming around the casement; the lark, the harbinger of the morning, soaring far aloft, even above the towers of Montresor, was catching his matins to the sun; and the horn of the harvest-man, and the many voices of the labourers, borne indistinctly from afar upon the breath of the morning, fell upon her ear in notes of laughter and of song, and appeared, in expressions of delight, to interpret to the hilarity of nature. In the remoter distance, where beneath the brightness of the rising day the ocean rippled in its immeasurable fields of splendour, was seen the white sail of the distant mariner, while the sea-birds, now glittering in the sun-beams, and now descending in their flight, laved the white wing in the waters.

Emma's soul, as she gazed upon the scene, was elevated with the sublimest spirit of devotion : — it was the devotion of nature, superior to all earthly system, and independent of every earthly ordinance or limitation. — it was felt in a quicker pulsation of the heart, and a brighter glow of the imagination. — It was the immortal life within her breast making known the conviction of its existence, by an aspiration too lofty for definition, and too refined for human analysis. — The saint, in the fervour of his piety, has hailed such moments of spiritual elation as the antipasts of his reception into mercy : they have mingled with the rude emotions of the uncultivated man, when, wild in woods, his savage soul has shrunk amid the solitudes around him, with the vague conceptions of divinity, or soared for a little moment above the narrow interests of the earth, to acknowledge a superior destination.

Emma's devotion was neither expressed in words of prayer or of praise ; for she felt ashamed to ask more of that gracious Being, whose unpetitioned bounty had already given so much ; and to return praises for his gifts, Emma felt, that by any words of hers it were impossible to praise them. — But she clasped her hands together ; cast a rapid glance upon the beauties around her, turned her eyes towards Heaven, and a tear of gratitude stood trembling on either eye-lid.

'The God who penetrates the inmost recesses of our hearts shall receive that tear before all the proud masses, and splendid offerings, which superstition proffers at his altar; shall acknowledge that tear, and the tears of those whose hearts are like thine, gentle Emma, as the dearest incense which the children of men can offer to their Creator.

'Emma felt that it was received; bowed her head humbly before her God; and the warm tear trickled down her cheek.'

The tale is affectionately inscribed by the author to his school-fellows; and it reflects no little honour on the institution at which he was educated, that it nurtured these early blossoms of eloquence. Our sincerest wishes attend him; and we cannot refrain from addressing him, and those who are emulous of the same praises, in the exhortation of a great man and consummate orator: "*Quamobrem pergite, ut facitis, adolescentes; atque in id studium, in quo estis, incumbite, ut et vobis honori, et amicis utilitati, et rei publicæ emolumento, esse possitis.*" Cic. *de Orat.* l. i. c. viii.

Art. 12. *The Rambles of my Uncle.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1821.

'My Uncle' is a poor London curate; struggling on a stipend of 80*l.* per annum to support 'a wife and three children, and a plentiful portion of the pride of birth and education.' Reflections of no very pleasing kind crowding one day on his mind, he leaves his own fire-side, and rambles into Hyde Park, to seek out happiness by studying his fellow-creatures: describing fantastically a variety of personages with whom he meets, and endeavouring to hit off something in the Yorick style: but, though he has caught the form of that excentric author, he is not indued with the spirit. He then returns home, convinced that every body is not happier than himself; and he seems at length to make the singular discovery that happiness is seated in the mind, and does not altogether depend on external circumstances. Like most discoverers, he cannot rest contented with his own knowlege, but after a while is anxious to communicate his stores and to make converts. He therefore has scarcely arrived at home when, being seized with another rambling fit, he sets forth again, to hold converse with the miserable; and glorious and incredible are the achievements which he performs in persuading individuals that they are happy without knowing it, or that they would be happy if they could but think so. — Those who are fond of fine words and sentimentalities may perhaps derive amusement from this little volume: but it does not convey fair notions of real life, nor exhibit examples or precepts for rational conduct.

EDUCATION.

Art. 13. *Theory and Practice; or a Guide to the French Language, devised on an Easy and Methodical Plan for Youth, and Persons who wish to Study the Elements of that Language without writing Exercises; and likewise a Book of Reference for Persons who wish to Translate English into French.* By J. Maurois, Author of "*A Modern French Conversation.*" 12mo. pp. 384. Whittaker, &c. 1821.

The number of French grammars is already considerable; yet here is one more, — of convenient size at least: but it abounds rather in examples than in rules, and is fuller as a vocabulary of words and phrases than as a list of precepts.

In describing the pronunciation of the letters, *h* is called *ash* instead of *osh*. In the lessons, the interpretation underwritten is not faithful enough for the use of learners: for instance, the words at p. 13., *Ne témoignez aucun embarras en lisant*, are thus rendered, *Neither utter hemms nor haas*; and many mis-translations occur; thus *pelletier* is not *skinner* but *furrier*, and *vêtu* is not *dressed* but *clad*. At p. 68., where the use of the grave accent in distinguishing certain words is explained, the accented *à* and the unaccented *ou* are omitted in the enumeration.

The following list of substantives, which are masculine in one signification and feminine in another, may deserve transcription:

a travelling coach	un co-che, m.	a pattern	un ex-ample, m.
a sow	une co-che, f.	a copy	une ex-ample, f.
an ensign	un en-sei-gne, m.	a piercer	un fo-ret, m.
a sign	une en-sei-gne, f.	a forest	une fo-rêt, f.
a keeper	un gar-de, m.	an employment	un pos-te, m.
a guard	une gar-de, f.	a post-office	une pos-te, f.
the registry	le gref-fe, m.	a sort of illness	le pour-pre, m.
the graft	la gref-fe, f.	the purple	la pour-pre, f.
a guide	un gui-de, m.	a sleep	un som-me, m.
a guidance	une gui-de, f.	a sum	une som-me, f.
a book	un livre, m.	a smile	un sou-ris, m.
a pound	une livre, f.	a mouse	une sou-ris, f.
a memorandum	un mé-moi-re, m.	a church	un tem-ple, m.
— memory	une mé-moi-re, f.	the temple of the head	une tem-ple, f.
a modality	un mo-de, m.	a trick	un tour, m.
a fashion	une mo-de, f.	a tower	une tour, f.
a mould	un mou-le, m.	a triumph	un tri-om-phe, m.
a muscle	une mou-le, f.	a trump at cards	la tri-om-phe, f.
a ship-boy	un mous-se, m.	a trumpeter	un trom-pet-te, m.
the moss	la mous-se, f.	a trumpet	une trom-pet-te, f.
a page to a king	un pa-ge, m.	a vase	un va-se, m.
a side of a leaf	une pa-ge, f.	the mud	la va-se, f.
a comparison	un pa-ral-lel-le, m.	a veil	un voi-le, m.
a parallel-line	une pa-ral-lel-le, f.	a sail	une voi-le, f.
a spade	un pi-que, m.	a stove	un po-ê-le, m.
a pike	une pi-que, f.	a frying-pan	une po-ê-le, f.
— person	— personne; when pronoun, masculine.		
a person	une personne; when substantive, feminine.		

The orthography is not always of the best usage: thus we find *Anglois*, *François*, *je finirois*, and *païen*, for *Anglais*, *Français*, *finirais*, and *payen*. Still, notwithstanding such petty blemishes, this grammar will be found convenient to masters, though insufficient for self-tuition.

The Abbé Valart drew up a concise abridgement of French grammar, which appears to us more complete than this; and which M. Maurois would do well to consult, if he should publish a revised edition.

P O E T R Y.

Art. 14. *Poems for Youth.* By a Family Circle. Part Second. 12mo. pp. 78. Baldwin and Co. 1821.

Many of our readers, we conclude, will recollect the first volume of these poems; and it is now very generally known, that the authors of this pleasing little collection of domestic poetry are to be found in the family of the learned and excellent historian of Lorenzo.* They breathe, as [we might expect, an amiable spirit of kindness and benevolence, and are evidently the production of pure taste and cultivated intellect.

One of the prettiest effusions among the shorter pieces is the following:

' *Sonnet, to —, on her Birth-Day.*

' My friend and sister! when amid the bowers
Of our deserted home we lov'd to play,
In unreprieved delight, the hours away,
And twine sweet garlands of our loveliest flowers
To deck a rural throne — with what delight
I placed a rosy wreath upon thy brow,
And breath'd a prayer, that thou might'st never know
Upon *this* day, a joy less pure and bright.
The day returns in sorrow, and the smile,
It lov'd to raise, is mingled with our tears;
Yet grieve not, O my sister! future years
Of peace and joy, may wait thee, and beguile
Thy young heart of its woe — and heaven shall spread
A fadeless wreath around thy modest head.'

That happy trifle, 'The Butterfly's Ball,' the successful progenitor of a long race of imitators, is reprinted in this little volume; and a short pastoral is placed at the beginning, which is elegant enough, but not likely to be appreciated by this *un-Arcadian* age. A vein of sensible piety runs through this little book; and we shall only farther observe that we do most cordially join in the sanguine expressions of hope in the last poem, and add our earnest wishes — nay, more than our wishes — for the diffusion of every possible comfort in this interesting quarter.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Art. 15. *An Essay on the Advantages of the Religious and Moral Instruction of the Young.* By the Rev. William Easton, B. A. Vicar of Hursbourn Priors, Hants, and Prebendary of Swallowcliff, Wilts. 8vo. pp. 46. 2s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1820.

It is always a matter of regret to us to witness the exercise of zeal without knowledge; and it is particularly painful to see an essay, which we are compelled to characterize as imbecile and illiberal in the extreme, published in the name of a dignitary of the Church of England. The only sensible passage in the essay

* See Rev. Vol. xciv. p. 211.

is an extract at full length from the Catechism, explaining the duties of children to their Creator, to their parents, and to their neighbour; the rest of the pamphlet consisting principally of declamation and invective against sectaries. Every judicious friend of the Establishment must feel vexed with the officiousness of a man who can put himself forwards as a champion, and yet brings to the combat no better weapons. The following extract is a specimen of the arguments used by Mr. Easton to prove the folly and crime of separation:

‘It is owing to the omission of this highly important duty (viz. attending the services of the Church) that we see so many forsake the true apostolic Church of England for other assemblies, to listen to teachers who are self-taught, and self-commissioned, and who propagate error and enthusiasm, and who “depart from the faith, having the form of godliness, but denying the power thereof.” These have unfortunately forsaken “the right way,” mixing with religious doctrines many “vain deceits,” after the traditions of men; using their liberty as a cloak of maliciousness, and even ruining their hearers by that “philosophy, falsely so called,” which has (produced), and will as long as this world endures produce, direful mischief. St. Peter informs us that “there shall be false teachers among you, who shall bring in damnable heresies, even denying the Lord that bought them, and bring on themselves swift destruction. And many shall follow their pernicious ways, by reason of whom the way of truth shall be evil spoken of; whose judgment now of a long time lingereth not, and their damnation slumbereth not.” 2 Peter, i. 2.

‘Can these men be forgetful of such awful and important texts of Scripture, which are so frequently and so awfully denounced against them? Those “whom God hath given over to a reprobate mind, being filled with all unrighteousness, wickedness, maliciousness, full of envy, murder, debate, deceit, malignity, disobedient, covenant-breakers, without natural affection, implacable, unmerciful.” Is not this judgment of the Almighty known and felt by them? Must not their eyes be necessarily opened to see the angel of the Lord, standing as it were in the way “with his sword in his hand,” to oppose them, because their “way was perverse before him?” These men I cannot but observe are miserably deluded by their own imaginations, and as the generality of them are ignorant, illiterate persons, they cannot surely be qualified for teachers, but have need themselves of being taught the “first principles of the oracles of God.” Such men must necessarily be “blind guides,” misleading their hearers by their own “vain babbling.” How many of them are low, mean, and contemptible! I need not say, for it is well known, that many of them can neither read nor write; and if we peruse the Bible we shall find it brought forward as a charge against Jeroboam, that he had made priests of the “lowest orders of the people.” For this he was to be cut off from his people, it being considered an act of rebellion against God. It would appear, that some of these teachers are not merely ignorant, but cunning, since they “walk in craftiness, and handle the word of God deceitfully.”

‘ What I have asserted I know to be a fact with regard to the description of persons I have been speaking of. Look at the numerous applications made by these men for licences at the Quarter Sessions. It has been proved that they are self-instructed, self-ordained, and six days in the week constantly employed in their daily occupations. They are cobblers, tailors, thatchers, and common masons, and who every Sabbath-day deck themselves in the sable garb of sanctity, hired at a pawnbroker’s shop, to ornament their ecclesiastical calling, the better to entrap the ignorant and unwary. Let me ask what instruction can these poor ignorant creatures furnish? Can “the blind lead the blind?” “Shall not both fall into the ditch?” By their fruits they shall be known. You will scarcely see them, but they are creeping into houses, leading captive silly women laden with sins, led away with divers lusts, by assuming to themselves the direction of their consciences, and who detain them in bondage, by keeping them ever learning, and never leading them to the knowledge of the truth. Therefore, as Timothy was courageous and faithful in discharging the duties of his ministry, so ought we the *lawful* ministers of Christ be courageous and faithful in the discharge of our ministerial functions, and to watch the appearance of false doctrine, and evil practices, and oppose their entrance into the Church. He was not intimidated while opposing the heretics of his day, nor should fear take possession of our bosoms while fighting the battles of faith and a good conscience.

‘ These men, or teachers, are ever anxious and busy to embrace every sect or description of persons who separate from the Establishment. “But be not deceived, God is not mocked, for whatsoever a man soweth, that also shall he reap.” And let me remind those who are followers of such hypocritical and false teachers, and blind guides, that they are to be had accursed who presume to say, that a man shall be saved by the law, or sect which he professeth, so that he be diligent to frame his life according to that law, or the principles of the sect to which he belongs. Holy Scripture doth set out unto us, only the name of Jesus Christ, whereby men can be saved. You may rely on it, and I believe what I say, that if the ordinances of the Church cannot confer salvation as a mean of God’s appointment, those of the sectaries cannot. We may learn from Malachi that it is the duty of the people to seek the law at the priest’s mouth, for he is the Lord’s messenger. They are not to run hither and thither, but to attend regularly to those appointed for their instruction.’

Some time afterward, the author bursts forth again :

‘ Thanks be to God, the authority of the Scriptures and the *genuineness of the Fathers*, are so well established, that we have no occasion to fear the wit of the Deist, the learning of the philosopher, nor the impotent malice of the Dissenter. Cromwell has left behind him a character of two religions which deserves some notice. Of the Quakers, he confessed that he “found them incorruptible;” but of the Presbyterians, he was often heard to say, “I am the only man who has known how to subdue that insolent sect, which can suffer none but itself.”’

Again,

Again, we have another splendid passage :

' In parishes where there are Sunday-schools established, the greater part of the young can read; and were libraries also formed, stored with books for the young, their minds would be matured as they gradually rose into manhood, and fortified against the seductive influence of pernicious publications. These pestilential writings are to be seen but too frequently in the houses of the poor, and the dissenting poor in particular. For the truth of this assertion, I am able to prove, that at this instant, many dissenting itinerant preachers are active in distributing indiscriminately to all ages and sects religious tracts and other cheap works, consistent with *their* profession, but disgraceful to preachers of the Gospel, a title they assume to themselves, with a view to withdraw the ignorant and unwary from the Established Church to the Conventicle, as the surest method of accomplishing her ruin. This fact is sufficient to convince every person how wickedly officious the dissenting teachers are at this moment, to sap and undermine the foundation of our excellent Establishment in church and state. The better to preserve the young from falling into the hands of such crafty and designing men, I recommend the frequent perusal of the 13th chap. of the Acts, where St. Luke informs us that when "Elymas the sorcerer sought to turn away the deputy from the faith," St. Paul addressed him in the following remarkable words, and which I wish every person would address to those itinerants wherever they meet them:—"O! full of all subtlety and all mischief, thou child of the devil, thou enemy of all righteousness, wilt thou not cease to pervert the right ways of the Lord?" It is deserving of the consideration of such men, that St. Paul pronounces an anathema against persons of this description, and even cautions those to whom he wrote of listening to them though they appeared as angels of light. Such men by their pernicious doctrine shut up the kingdom of heaven against every person except those of their own party, and make void the word of God by their false glosses and pernicious doctrine.'

We certainly have seen something like this before: but whether in some old specimens of Friar Gerund's pulpit-eloquence, or in the vehemence of Partridge the almanack-maker when he was accused of being dead, we find it difficult to ascertain.

Though we cannot give Mr. Easton credit for discretion in any part of his essay, two passages display his learning. In the one, he mentions as a warning to separatists from the Church of England, that 'it is a fact, that Novatian was severely censured for leaving the unity of the Church, and for that cause was proclaimed to be without the pale of it.'—In the other, he shews the antiquity of confirmation as an ecclesiastical rite:

'Confirmation is a very old ceremony; it is as old as the patriarchal ages. Thus when Jacob blessed Ephraim and Manasseh, he followed the same plan as that practised in our excellent Church. It was done by the imposition of hands. Jacob laid his hands on his grandsons, and said, "God, in whose sight my fathers Abraham and Isaac walked, who has fed me all my life to

this day, the Angel who redeemed me from all adversity, bless the lads."

It may perhaps be mentioned as a third instance of the author's antiquarian knowledge that, when speaking of 'dissenting preachers,' he says, 'Our blessed Lord who well knew *these kind of people*, repeatedly styles them hypocrites, blind guides, serpents, a generation of vipers, and of all such he positively declares, that they shall not escape the damnation of hell.' In urging that the young 'moral twigs' should be bent betimes, and that it is conducive to 'the glory of God that the seeds of grace should be sown and sprout out betimes,' the writer observes very forcibly that 'by frequenting our Church they will be kept from those houses raised in opposition to her, and *learn to detest their principles*.' If by our *Church* the learned clergyman meant the church at Hurtsborn Priors, the proposition seems indisputable.

'When at church,' he goes on to say, 'they will be taught to pray to Almighty God, to deliver and protect them from all "sedition, privy conspiracy, and rebellion; from all false doctrine, heresy, and schism, from hardness of heart, and contempt of God's word and commandments."

As to this crime of schism, we have often read with admiration the following passage in the *Liberty of Prophecy*; which our opinion of Mr. Easton will not permit us to insult his understanding by quoting for his benefit, but which we copy for the use of those who can appreciate good sense wherever they find it, and who would pay more deference to the wisdom of a dead bishop than to the power of promotion which resides in a living prelate.

"Few churches," says Taylor, "that have framed bodies of confession and articles will endure any person that is not of the same confession; which is a plain demonstration that such bodies of confession and articles do much hurt by becoming instruments of separating and deceiving communions, and making unnecessary or uncertain propositions a certain mean of schism and disunion. But those men would do well to consider, whether or no such proceedings do not derive the guilt of schism upon them who least think it, and whether of the two is the schismatic, he that makes unnecessary and (supposing the state of things) inconvenient impositions, or he that disobeys them because he cannot without doing violence to his conscience believe them? He that parts communion, because without sin he could not entertain it, or they that have made it necessary for him to separate, by requiring such conditions, which to no man are simply necessary, and to this particular are either sinful or impossible."

Art. 16. *Robinson Crusoeus. Latine scripsit F. J. Goffaux, Humaniorum Litterarum Professor in Lyceo Imperiali. Editio Nova, cui accedunt Annotationes.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Wilson. 1820.

We consider this as a very good idea. Boys of some imagination, and of some attainments in Latin, may possibly be attracted to read this work as a voluntary task; and, if so, we think that they

they will find it converted into a pleasure. If we speak for ourselves, we can say that it has revived all our early fondness for one of the most delightful of boyish books; and we sit down with thankfulness to acknowledge the gratification which this German translator of it has conferred on us.

We are far, however, from allowing that, in the arrangement of his abridged Robinson Crusoe, he has preserved all the charm of the original story; on the contrary, we object to several alterations; and particularly to the omission of the wreck, from which Robinson derived so many comforts in his *solitary* state: but, on the whole, the Latin is still very entertaining, and grows in interest as we advance.

It is late indeed to panegyrize Robinson Crusoe: but we must take this opportunity of maintaining, with all our might, that no subsequent writer has succeeded so well in making the imagination the high road to virtuous feeling, and sensible reflection, as De Foe did in his Robinson Crusoe. The rational piety of this excellent narration; its warm, simple, and beautiful reference of all the events of life to a gracious and over-ruling Providence; patience under misfortunes; the whole circle of such Christian duties as could be practised in so contracted a sphere; — all this, and how much more! — where is it all combined with such entertainment, with such universally interesting details? This charming tale has awakened, we have no doubt, the dormant fancy of thousands; and who that reflects on the share that fancy takes, in stirring up the wonders of the human mind, can refuse highly to appreciate the works that contribute, so largely and so safely, to the developement of that preliminary power?

The mention of De Foe, honoured as his name is in the annals of fictitious lore, suggests a question which we should be glad to have satisfactorily answered, as to the authenticity of the first volume of Robinson Crusoe. It has been said, we hear, in print, and has often we know been repeated in literary conversation, that De Foe was *not* the author of the first and best volume of this interesting work: but that Harley wrote it during his confinement in the Tower. Who can satisfy our natural curiosity on this head?

The translation of this history into Latin must have been a work of very considerable difficulty; executed, as it is, in a highly creditable manner, of which our classical readers shall be enabled to judge by a few specimens. We shall be very glad if (by any recommendation from us) we not only increase the popularity of this book among English scholars, but encourage them to attempt what we think might be very useful to students in Latin: — to take advantage, we mean, of the interest which the best English novels naturally excite even in the most *dense* boys; and, by turning some of them, or parts of them, into Latin, to multiply the chances of tempting the unwilling into unconscious scholarship. It is easy to suggest tales of a proper kind: — “*Rasselas*,” “*The Vicar of Wakefield*,” or “*Sandford and Merton*” possibly; or any other works of a higher or a lower class, provided that they were entertaining, might furnish good subjects; so as to effect the desirable

sirable object of rousing *voluntary* attention. The knowledge gained in this way is so obviously superior to that which is acquired in any other, that we shall not waste our metaphysics on the proof.

The first passage that we shall select is that in which Robinson discovers the footsteps of men on the sand *; and the subsequent sights of horror.

'Primam noctem Robinson in arbore egit, ut tutus a feris esset : et postera die iter persecutus est. Nec multum vice confecerat, cum extremam insulae partem versus meridiem attigit. Solum nonnullis in locis erat arenosum. Dum autem tendit ad tractum terrae in mare procurrentem, ecce pedem fert retrò ; tum pallescere, contremiscere, oculos circumferre, et subito hæere quasi fulmine repentino ictus. Videt nimirum quod hic visurum se nunquam speraverat, vestigia hominum arenæ impressa !

'Tum ille territus undique circumspicit ; audito vel levissimo foliorum strepitu stupet, sensusque adeo perturbantur ut stet inops consilii ; tandem collectis viribus fugam corripit, quasi instarent a tergo, nec præ terrore respicere ausus est. At ecce repente substitit. Metus in horrorem vertitur. Videt nimirum fossam rotundam atque in medio ignis extincti focum. Quem circà, horresco referens, crania, manus, pedes, aliaque corporis ossa aspicit, execrandas reliquias convivii a quo natura abhorret.'

We are perfectly aware of the possibility of finding fault with this translation : but, on the whole, we think that it is well and classically executed. The name of *Robinson* must sound odd and uncouth to classical ears ; yet we question whether more would not be lost than gained by making it *Robinsonus*, and we are sure that *Robinson* would never succeed.

The next scene that we shall extract is that in which Robinson, accompanied by his man Friday, having built a boat, is launching to sea :

'Robinson, arce relictâ †, in tumultu imminente restitit, secum paulisper meditaturus, sociumque præire jussit. Tum vitæ solitariae hîc actæ vicissitudines mente repetit ac recordatus quanta accepisset a supremo numine beneficia, lacrymas grati animi indices effundit, manibusque expansis, ex intimo pectore summâ cum pietate Deo gratias agit.'

'Tum regionem illam, eò sibi cariorem quòd eam mox relicturus erat, oculis perlustravit, hominis instar qui patriam linquit nullâ cum spe illius unquàm revisendæ. Oculi tristes madentesque in arbore quâvis cujus umbrâ olim recreatus fuerat, in opere quolibet quod propriis manibus multoque sudore confecerat, defixi hærent. Ab amicis disjungi sibi videtur. Cùm verò tandem lamas ad imum montem pascentes conspexisset, faciem avertit ne carissimorum sibi animantium aspectu ipse à proposito consilio avocaretur.'

'Tandem vicit caritatem animi constantia ; ad fortitudinem se ipse exacuit, ulnisque ad regionem totam, veluti eam amplexurus,

* In the original it is the trace of a single foot.

† This would be better *relictâ arce* ; and we observe other instances of substituting the rhythm of verse for that of prose.

expansis,

expansis, clarâ voce exclamavit : Valet o calamitatum mearum testes ! Valet ! atque hoc ultimo vale inter singultus emisso, in viam quæ ad littus ducebat, se contulit.

Much feeling is displayed in this description, and it is well maintained by the translator.

We shall finish our extracts and remarks with one other citation. Robinson is about to quit his melancholy but dear solitude ; and, on his departure, he gives the following excellent directions to the English and Spaniards whom he left on the island :

' Quibus convocatis suam Robinson declaravit voluntatem, his verbis : "Neminem fore spero, qui mihi jus deneget de rebus meis, id est, hæc insulâ cum omnibus quæ in eâ sunt, arbitrio meo statuendi. Opto autem ut omnium cujusque vestrum qui hîc remansuri estis conditio sit beatissima ; atque ad id assequendum, certas leges non habentibus meum est instituere, vestrum autem sequi.

" Hæc igitur accipite.

" Hos ambo Hispanos ego meos in insulâ vicarios constituo. Hi præcipient, vos parebitis. His committo apparatus omnem bellicum, variaque instrumenta, eâ tamen lege ut illi vobis necessaria præbeant ; vos autem cum iis honestè in pace vivatis.

" Ac principio Deum colite ; nulla enim civitas firma, nisi fundamentum sit pietas.

" Proxima pietati sit justitia. Jus suum cuique tribuatur, ac ne cui quis noceat.

" De cæteris ambo Hispani viderint. Illi fines agris assignabunt, juraque, prout res postulabit, privata publicaque statuent.

" Forsan et olim dabitur de vobis audire, aut me aliquandò juvabit extremum in hæc insulâ mihi carissimâ vitæ tempus agere. Væ illi qui interea instituta mea transgressus fuerit. Ego hominem in cymbâ impositum fluctibus sævissimâ tempestate agitatæ tradam hauriendum." His auditis, assensere omnes obedientiamque polliciti sunt.

A little bald Latinity is here discoverable ; as in the phrases '*declaravit voluntatem ;*' '*in cymbâ impositum ** ;' '*obedientiam polliciti* : but let us remember, "*Verum opere in longo,*" &c., and the difficulty of representing so much vernacular idiom in an antient language is very honourably overcome. As we have already said, therefore, we hope that the attempt will be handsomely welcomed, and the example judiciously followed.

Art. 17. *Thoughts and Suggestions on the Education of the Peasantry of Ireland.* 8vo. pp. 58. Cadell. 1820.

The animated and impressive style in which this pamphlet is written would have been the least of its merits, had not this very animation and impressiveness appeared to spring from the deep interest which the author takes in the political, moral, and religious improvement of his countrymen. The heart of the Irish, we believe, is like the soil of their green island, blessed by nature with an exhaustless fertility : whichever get possession, the virtues or

* This, indeed, is wrong ; it should be *cymbæ* or *in cymbam* ; and perhaps *nisi fundamentum*, &c. would be more correct than *fundamento*.

the vices, the feelings of affection to a friend or hostility to a foe, gratitude for kindness or revenge for indignities, are fostered with care, and grow with unbounded luxuriance. Surely such a teeming soil as this will more gratefully repay the labours of culture, than those wastes in which no salutary plant takes root, no verdure quickens, but all is repulsive coldness and sterility; yet this is the soil which we have left untilled and unweeded, to be possessed by a rank and noxious vegetation.

Rarely have we met with a pamphlet in which were blended more good sense and good feeling than the present manifests. The author seems well acquainted with the Irish character; at least there is great appearance of fidelity and resemblance in his delineations of the peasantry, and much discrimination is exhibited in his portraits of the Catholic and Protestant priesthood. Education, it is well observed, as it applies to the mass of a people, is of two kinds; that of good habits, and that of letters: the last combined with or independent of religious instruction. The education of good habits obtains most in England; in Scotland, the education of letters combined with religious instruction: while Ireland possesses in some degree the education of letters merely, and can boast but little religious instruction and few good habits. Every village, indeed, has its school; in which reading, writing, and some knowledge of arithmetic, are acquired by those who are able to pay the very small stipend of the master: but, if the following description of this personage may be considered as generic, little good can be anticipated from his auspices:

'The country-schoolmaster is independent of all system and control; he is himself one of the people, imbued with the same prejudices, influenced by the same feelings, subject to the same habits; to his little store of learning, he generally adds some traditional tales of his country, of a character to keep alive discontent. He is the scribe, as well as the chronicler and the pedagogue of his little circle; he writes their letters, and derives from this no small degree of influence and profit: but he has open to him another source of deeper interest and greater emolument, which he seldom has virtue enough to leave unexplored. He is the centre of the mystery of rustic iniquity, the cheap attorney of the neighbourhood, and, furnished with his little book of precedents, the fabricator of false leases and surreptitious deeds and conveyances. Possessed of important secrets and of useful acquirements, he is courted and caressed; a cordial réception and the usual allowance of whiskey greet his approach, and he completes his character by adding inebriety to his other accomplishments. Such is frequently the rural schoolmaster, a personage whom poetry would adorn with primeval innocence and all the flowers of her garland! So true it is that ignorance is not simplicity, nor rudeness honesty.'

Where the education of good habits has been neglected, the duty becomes doubly incumbent to combine religious and moral instruction with the education of letters: because from such a combination good habits will eventually result. It may be asked, is no
provi-

provision made in Ireland, then, for religious instruction? No nation, says this writer, pays more dearly for it, none values it more, and none obtains less. Ireland supports two heavy establishments: but from the Protestant the mass of the people may be said to receive no instruction, and from the Catholic little that is valuable. The Established Church collects its revenues from the whole population of the country, without distinction of sects, and confines its instruction to a very minute portion: — but, it may be alleged, the mass of the people, abhorring the heresy of the Protestant church, would reject the services of its ministers. Why should we neglect and abandon them on the bare and probably unfounded assumption? at least let us try the experiment. We may not be able to detach them from their own church, but is there no means of salvation within the pale of it? Why, then, molest them in their creed, in the faith of their forefathers? Without alienating them from that church to which they are bound by so many and such powerful ties, we may do much for the people.

‘We have heard of one or two of the ministers of the Established Church, who, not content with promoting such plans of education as met the scruples of their Catholic parishioners, thought it their duty also to care for their spiritual welfare. Looking into the books of Catholic divinity, they chose some of those tracts of sublime piety with which they abound, had them printed at their own expense, and extensively distributed. We have known where the minister would seek in his cottage him whose religious profession did not permit him to attend at church; and having won his good will by a thousand little acts of kindness and good neighbourhood, for which the casualties of life are ever making room, would breathe the spirit, and cultivate the feelings, and instil the doctrines, which are not of the Church of England, or of the Church of Rome, but of the Church of Christ.’

We confess ourselves at a loss to reconcile the general eulogy which this author pays to the Irish Protestant clergy, with the more particular and minute delineations of character which he afterward draws of them. No where, says he, is there ‘a more highly respectable and exemplary body of men’ than they are; and he then points to a spacious field for the exercise of their beneficence. Alas! this field seems to them almost a *terra incognita*, bearing the print only of a few solitary footsteps on the dreary waste! The Protestant clergy in the western parts of Ireland, where few resident gentry are to be found, usefully supply their places; living on their tythes as on their estates, more like country-gentlemen than a Christian priesthood; not forgetful of the peculiar duties of their vocation, but in which as far as they regard a Protestant flock they may have little or no occupation. The ceremonial of worship, we are told, (p. 24.) is performed, perhaps, in a decent manner, and with somewhat of the air and aspect of a formula, *indicating simply the modus or tenure of a life-estate*. Surely it is inconsistent to set up such persons as an ‘exemplary body of men,’ when it is added in the very next page that, from their style of living, and from the incongruous functions which some
of

of them perform, magisterial and *military*, as well as ecclesiastical, they injure and retard the advancement of religion and of Protestantism in Ireland. Why does the Protestant church not flourish, why does it *lose ground* there? 'We answer by pointing to the penal statute-book; by pointing to the clergy of the reformed church, and, with all their good and estimable qualities, their peculiar unfitness.' It very rarely happens that a Catholic priest loses the confidence of his flock, or so sinks himself in the scale of moral character as to be deemed unfit for the ministration of the Gospel: but such cases have happened; and, when they do, it is observed that the poor deserted flock never turn to the Protestant priest with any hope of deriving religious consolation from him. Nor does this arise from sectarian prejudices; for they know little of the Irish peasantry, we are told, who deem their attachment to the church of Rome grounded solely on religious feelings: but the Catholic priest alone is he who bears on him the marks of a clerical character, not only in the eyes of the Catholics, but frequently also in the eyes of the Protestant peasantry. Now mark the contrast:

'There are to be found, in some of the most Catholic parts of Ireland, numerous scattered families of peasants of the Protestant communion. These, though they may be punctual in attendance at church; though they may, all their lives long, profess an abhorrence of popery, yet in sickness, in the hour of death, when they turn round the languid eye in search of that consolation, which the prejudices, the antipathies, and the partialities of this world can no longer bestow — they look only to the priest — the Popish priest — the priest of that superstition they were in the constant habit of reviling. He is sent for, and the dying Christian, rather than be without all spiritual aid, submits to renounce the religion, which perhaps he yet prefers. He dies a Catholic. This is by no means a rare case, it is one of every-day occurrence; and we believe we account for it correctly, in attributing it to the absence of every thing clerical in the character of the Protestant clergyman; to his possessing, in the eyes even of his own proper flock, nothing more than the simple characteristics of a well-bred and perhaps humane and charitable country gentleman.

'The Catholic priest is sought for, because he has about him all the signs of his important vocation, and none other. He is seen to be occupied wholly, and devoted exclusively, to the ministrations of his office; he has no other pursuit or employment. There is more of sympathy too between the order and condition of the peasant and that of the Catholic priest; the latter is used more to the humilities of life, he can hear with more patience, and understand with more distinctness, and enter into the story of his sins and his sufferings with more tenderness and feeling, than the dignified gentleman, who is surrounded with so much of the pomp and circumstance of life; who is lifted up so much above the poor peasant, that there is nothing in common between them; and whose experience is so rare in ministrations of this sort, and whose multiplied avocations of another class have impressed upon his character

character so much of another feature and bearing, that, whatever may be his merits in other respects, the spiritual necessities of poverty will rarely seek relief in his bosom.

Has the Catholic priest no leisure to impart the blessings of education to his flock? Listen:

'Day and night, without rest or intermission, in the summer heats, in the cold and the storm, in the rain and the snows of winter, he traverses the mountain and the bog on foot and on horseback, in the ordinary course of his ministration. He returns to his humble dwelling fatigued, exhausted, and finds perhaps one or more messengers from distant parts of his extensive parishes, requiring his immediate attendance upon the sick; if he hesitate they entreat; if he is obstinate they threaten, and he is forced to comply. In the morning he has a *station* * upon the brow of some distant hill; here multitudes on multitudes come crowding to be confessed, and night brings him home again, if he be permitted to sleep, only to renew with the morning, in a more distant quarter, the labours of the past day. On Sundays mass is to be celebrated at two or more chapels perhaps many miles asunder, no matter how bad the weather, the roaring torrent, or the broken way. The last mass and service, and sermon, are not finished till late in the day, and till then the priest is not permitted to taste food; no matter though he be old, or sick, or infirm. Can such a life of labour and exhaustion afford means or opportunity for the improvement of the people?'

The cure for the evils of Ireland are, first, conciliation on the part of government; not answering complaints by an insurrection-act, or punishing every local effervescence by the military. Secondly, educate the people, regulate the old schools, and establish new: a religious education will alone reach the disease. Let it be, if it must be, says this author, the Catholic religion; teach it to them: but let it not be the mere catholicity of forms and ceremonies; take care that they are imbued with the spirit of Christianity, and let them have the written word of God. Do not proselytize: let the people continue Catholic. At the present moment, any attempt to convert them would excite their jealousy, inflame their opposition, and multiply difficulties, if it does not frustrate all our labour. Several societies, we are happy to know, are at this time actively engaged in this holy work, with greater or less success according to the measures which they are pursuing:—but it is with concern we find that the "London Hibernian Society," which gives the Gospel to all who are willing to receive it, without interfering with the religious profession of the people, and which is thus pursuing a plan more adapted to the circumstances of Ireland than any other that has been tried, is working with funds incommensurate to its objects: yet it has already established about five hundred schools, in which are instructed about sixty thousand children.

* Some cottager's house where Divine service is performed, and the neighbouring people confessed.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

We beg our friend *Philo-Phædrus* to be assured that "the times are gone and past," long since, in which we found it possible to extend our notices 'to all' the publications of our fertile press; and that therefore our omission of the book concerning which he writes, and of which we now hear for the first time, is so far from being a peculiar that it is a very common case indeed. This plain truth will, we trust, be a sufficient apology to him, individually.

A long letter has reached us from Mr. Charles Lloyd, jun., respecting our account of his poems in the last Review. As we have not had an opportunity of communicating it to the writer of that article, who is now at a great distance from London, we can only state the substance of it. First, Mr. Lloyd denies that he had the least idea of being *facetious*, in those compositions which appeared to us to be an effort in that way. Now, among the involuntary and unconscious acts of man, it certainly is not very usual for him to be merry against his will, and without knowing it: though such a case, we believe, has happened before now, at least in the judgment of *by-standers*. Secondly, Mr. L. declares that his "*Titus and Gisippus*" is 'utterly unlike *Diego de Montilla*,' with which we have 'classed it,' and that 'the march of the story is conducted on a plan entirely his own'; all that he has borrowed from the Italian novelist being 'the idea of one friend yielding his mistress to another, and three proper names.' Thirdly, as to the metre adopted by Mr. L., he asserts that he did not chuse it in imitation of Lord Byron, but because he liked it; and that he has precedents for using it as the vehicle of serious as well as gayer composition, in the example of Shakspeare (varied), Fairfax, Spenser (varied), Ariosto, and Tasso. — With regard to the "*Desultory Thoughts*," Mr. L. pleads guilty to the charge of a mixture of the jocose and the grave, and admits that here the allegation of imitating Lord Byron seems 'somewhat better founded'; but the facts, he says, are these. 'The poem was chiefly written in bed, during my recovery from an illness which lasted four years and a half. At times, I suffered so much while composing it, that I found it difficult not to express what I felt. As much as in me lay, I resisted this propensity; and, not chusing to express my feelings in their naked anguish, they forced themselves out, as it were, in the half-jocose and half-querulous style to which you allude: but no thought could be farther from my mind than that of imitating either the Italian poets or Lord Byron.'

We sincerely hope that Mr. Lloyd will never compose another poem under these circumstances, but that in future he will feel disposed to be cordially *facetious*, and happy to acknowledge it.

Mr. M. C. of Philadelphia writes a letter to us, requesting that we 'will be so good' as to announce to the public the intended appearance of a certain work; and leaves us to pay the postage of his trans-Atlantic communication. "The gods forbid" that he should be offended, if we inform him that all this is not considered in Europe as either very polite or very just.



THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1821.

ART. I. *Italy.* By Lady Morgan. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 13s. 6d.
Boards. Colburn. 1821.

THE “fertile plains of Italy” certainly cannot be said, of late, to be unblest with literary any more than with natural produce; for her cities and her landscapes, her people and her fruits, her antient glories and her modern state, have recently been the ample and the ardent theme of many fluent pens. Attractive as the subject has ever been, and particularly fashionable as it is at present, we are not surprized that it has been chosen for the travelling inspection and *scribendal* industry of one of our most lively female tourists and most prolific female authors. Lady Morgan, under that denomination, and formerly as Miss Owenson, is no stranger to the public or to our pages; nor are her characteristics now to be pointed out, or our judgment on them to be formed and communicated. We have ever been ready to pay the due tribute to her talents, and to such of her opinions and doctrines as we could approve; while we have not concealed our discovery of her occasional errors in statement, inaccuracy of information, inconsequence of argument, or indiscreetness of reflection. Need we add, then, that we have never intentionally done her injustice, positively or negatively; or that, in considering her merits as a writer, we have never forgotten her claims as a female on our politeness even as critics?

In the instance before us, however, we must say that Lady Morgan calculated largely on our patience and good humour, when she planned this work on so extensive a scale. We should have thought that Italy, as it is, might have afforded materials for a new book of reasonable magnitude, without the necessity of incursions into history, and contributions from authorities which are universally accessible; and we did not expect to begin our journey quite so far back as the golden age, and thence be obliged to travel upwards to the actual state of things. If Lady Morgan, by what she denominates ‘*Historic Sketches*,’ intended to simplify and elucidate

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elucidate her subject for the benefit of those who are willing to permit others to read for them, we cannot congratulate her on the attainment of so laudable an object; since those events, which are clear and intelligible in the page of history, become obscure and confused when surveyed through the medium of her poetic declamation. In fact, history is not this lady's appropriate province. It requires a dignity, an accuracy, and a perspicuity, which cannot associate with rambling flights, hurried conclusions, and strong partialities. While we admire her vivacity, and the warmth and activity of her fancy, the charm is constantly impaired by defects which "quarrel with the noblest grace she owes, and put it to the foil." These defects we think may be traced to an original negligence in the cultivation of her taste and judgment; the result of which culture would probably have taught her to controul the sallies of her wit, and the too eager impulse of her feelings: while now her genius, sporting without this controul, has been suffered like an unpruned tree to grow wild in its own luxuriance. With all its faults, however, her book is any thing but dull; and we have felt little inclination to slumber through it, as we often do through the polished and blameless mediocrity of tamer productions.

We are induced to think that many of the faults of this lady's productions may be referred to inordinate ambition, a quality which has been said to be "the glorious fault of angels:" — but Lady Morgan, as a writer, is certainly no angel, since the bitter sarcasm and invective, with which her pages abound, are inconsistent with the attributes of this order of females, and far from becoming the earthly form of woman. In her emulation of masculine attainments, she has thus discarded the virtues which are peculiarly feminine, as restraints and impediments in the way of her success; and, in her efforts to be nervous, pointed, and severe, she sacrifices delicacy, grace, and sweetness. We do not wish for satire from a female. Let vice be chastized, and crimes denounced, by other lips than those which we would willingly consecrate to love and purity and peace. We are far indeed from meaning to prescribe narrow limits to the circle of female acquirements, as we have often stated and evinced in our pages: but we are fond of thinking that a difference of sex extends to the minds as well as bodies of women, to such a degree that some studies are better adapted than others to the more delicate construction of their faculties, and the natural distinction of their social and domestic duties. Even if philosophy could disprove this idea, and demonstrate an original equality of intellectual endowment between the sexes, we should reluctantly

part

part with our error. We are at a loss to conceive, indeed, how any good can result from confounding the studies of men and of women. If the minds of females were to be assimilated with those of men by a participation in the same common pursuits, where would be the novelty, the variety, the recreation, which we enjoy in their converse, and which we have a right to demand as the solace of our more harassing cares and our severer labours?

We have been forced into what may be considered as a digression by the very singular character of Lady Morgan's writings; which seemed to call for our opinion as to the proper and becoming restraints on the literary ambition of women. From the turmoil and wrangling of politics, we would rigorously exclude them, though we would not have them indifferent to the welfare of the state in which they live, and to the happiness of the millions of whom they form a part; and we may adduce, as an argument in our justification, the effects of such contemplations on a mind so highly gifted as that of Lady Morgan herself. Without here pronouncing any judgment as to the political interference of Great Britain in Italy, we think that the language in which the fair author indulges is too violent and unfeminine, even if the representation be true in point of fact. We cite out of many others the following specimen:

'The fate of Genoa requires no comment; it is the Parga of Italy; and it owes its misfortunes to the same councils and the same systems, which in a shameless conspiracy against the rights and feelings of humanity are plotting the total extinction of liberty in Europe. The part which England has played in the surrender of this ancient republic, has earned for her the double obloquy of crime and of duplicity; and the indignation which yet murmurs upon the lips of the whole Italian population is largely mingled with contempt for a nation, whose indifference to the liberties of foreign countries they take as the certain sign and forerunner of the loss of its own. Despotism holds it, they say, "like an ape in the corner of its jaw — first mouthed to be last swallowed."'

Having spoken of this lady's rhapsodies as darkening and perplexing instead of elucidating the historical subjects which she has been pleased to select, we will subjoin an example, which will probably be as unintelligible to our readers as it is to ourselves. She is referring to the revolution in Italy:

'The crash of distant thunders, such as the Capitoline Jupiter or the chief of the Christian Vatican had never fulminated, was now heard bursting over the eternal summits of the guardian Alps.'

Alps. The electric lights which broke along the political chain of Europe let fall their sparks upon the plains of Lombardy; the shock was felt in the voluptuous bowers of the Arno, in the gorgeous galleries of the Quirinal, and from the Simplon to Vesuvius all Italy responded a fearful vibration. A revolution in public opinion first manifested its existence by terrible symptoms in France, where every human abuse had reached the utmost possibility of endurance. This was the arrival of one of those great epochs in the history of humanity which return at remote intervals, like astronomic phenomena. Grand, splendid, and overwhelming, they are the results of the moral instinct of man urging forward the cause of that truth, which is to lessen the weight of his evils and to increase his sum of good. For all tends but to that, the here and the hereafter, the ox offered to Isis, and the light analyzed by Newton. History has recorded these epochs as they appeared, the luminous *avatars* of mind, in Egypt, in Greece, in Italy, and in England. She has also recorded the shock of temporary interests successively opposed to their duration and influence. But though power and system have from age to age forced a recoil, they have neither broken the spring of the impulse nor obliterated the trace of the passing impression. It is thus the tide, ebbing as it flows, marks the circle of each successive wave on the sands from which it retires; until, finally effecting its immutable law, it covers with its waters the whole waste of shore where rocks and shoals have vainly stemmed its incursions.

To the above examples we will add some that relate to different subjects:

'There are six other great pictures of Guido's in this collection; and his own portrait by Simone da Pesaro, a splendid countenance, which, though he was old when it was done, exhibits all the genius discernible in his works. What a race did the free states of Italy leave behind them! What noble countenances! What splendid forms! There are still fine heads in Italy; but nothing comparable to this! nothing comparable to the head seen in the corner of a picture of the Madonna by Innocenza da Imola, in the same collection! nothing like Raphael's two Bolognese lawyers at Rome! like his own head! or that of his friend Bindo Altoviti, by Cellini! energies developed, passions awakened, views ennobled by their objects, imaginations heated and exercised—these are the true sources of beauty; sources soon dried up under the influence of unlimited power. A century of un-mixed despotism deteriorates the handsomest race: sloth and luxury decompose the physiognomy of the upper classes, and ignorance reduces the features of the lower ranks to a common level of un-ideal'd animality.' (Vol. i. p. 298.)

The ensuing extract, though it might not unaptly open a chapter in a sentimental novel, is at present very much out of its appropriate place:

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‘ The stars were still burning brightly in the clear dark blue heavens, as we ascended the Giogo, early in the morning; but they soon, though gradually,

“ Paled their ineffectual fires.”

A sort of sapphire light fell like a shower on the eastern summits of the mountains, and ushered in the rising sun, which ascended most gloriously, most awfully, above those mighty elevations, where the sublimest spectacle of nature is most sublime. Many a salient point of bleached rock sparkled with refracted rays, and hung above the rolling vapours of the vallies beneath, like beacon lights on the ocean's verge; and many a changeful meteoric illusion cheated and charmed the eye, until the full bursts of day dispelled every atmospheric mist and cloud, and left distinctly traced, and brightly gilt, the forests, turrets, and meandering rivers of the vast and various scenery, which beautifies the descent into the valley of the Arno.

‘ In hours so fresh as these, in scenes so lovely, and in airs so pure, there is a sort of intoxication in existence, which raises the spirit so far above the sad regions of “ low-thoughted care,” that “ the ills which flesh is heir to ” are as much forgotten as its crimes. Then nature, tearless and enjoying, conceals her necessitated law of destruction, her inevitable principle of suffering; and all seems good, as in the first morning of creation. But the sun sinks in the heavens, vapours rise from the earth, the spirit sobers, the fancy fades; and nature, drooping and exhausted, predicts the oft-reiterated truth, which dreams alone can dissipate — that man was made to suffer and to die. In the season and the scene which now, however, presented itself, all was renovation: fact and poetry went hand in hand; and sun-rise on the Apennines recalled the vigorous touch of Shakspeare's pencil, his bold bright image of

— “ Jocund day

Stands tip-toe on the misty mountain's top.”

But nothing brought to our recollections the Titans and Auroras of a French poetical morning of the old regime; when Sol always hid his rays, as some “ *belle Matineuse*,” some Phyllis “ *au visage riant*,” stepped from her hotel on the Fauxbourg St. Germain, (where the last of the Phyllises may still be found,)

“ Et fit voir une lumière et plus vive et plus belle.”

Descriptive poets belong only to free countries, where royal academies cannot put down nature “ *de par le roi*,” nor royal academicians declare her inspirations, “ *faux et ignobles*.”

Lady M.'s description of the villa Albani at Rome is not unpleasing, although it betrays farther symptoms of a “ *rept soul*.”

‘ The villa Albani, raised in the middle of the last century by the late Cardinal, and belonging to the present Cardinal Albani, is

the most perfect, the freshest of all Roman villas. It looks like some pure and elegant Grecian temple — a little Pantheon! dedicated to all the rural gods, with whose statues (the most perfect specimens of antiquities) its marble colonnades and galleries are filled. It might be deemed too ideal for a human habitation; yet is sufficiently commodious to be one; and of all other villas, this alone realizes the preconceived image of fervid fancies of a true Italian villa. Its walls are encrusted with basso-relievos — its corridors grouped with fauns and nymphs — its ceilings all azure and gold — its salons perfumed by breezes, loaded with the odours of orange-flowers. Its gardens, studded with temples, command a view terminated by a waving line of acclivities, whose very names are poetry. When I visited it, a distant blue mist veiled the intervening wastes of the Campagna, and the dews and lights of morning lent their freshness and lustre to a scene and fabric, such as Love might have chosen for his Psyche when he bore her from the wrath of Venus. But, when the first glimpse of this vision faded, the true character of the Roman villa came forth; for artichokes and cabbages were flourishing amidst fauns and satyrs, that seemed chiselled by a Praxiteles! The *Eminentissimo* *Padrone* of this splendid villa rarely visits its wonders but in the course of a morning drive; and his gardens are hired out to a Roman market-man, to raise vegetables during the spring and winter. In summer even the custode vacates his hovel, and the villa Albani is left in the undisputed possession of that terrible scourge of Roman policy and Roman crimes — the Mal-aria; the causes and effects all morally connected, and the strictest poetical justice every where visible.

We will now make a quotation or two from the account of Genoa, which comprizes favourable specimens of the author's powers in various departments of writing. In our first extract the beginning is grave, the middle lively, and the conclusion pathetic; but we cannot understand why Columbus's bark should be denominated *fairy*.

'The palaces Brignole, Pallavicini, Balbi, &c. &c. &c., follow in succession; all characterized, like those described, by the generic feature of Genoese sumptuousness; all filled with pictures, gilding, arabesques, frescos, dust, moths, and cobwebs; always unenjoyable, because raised in a narrow street, and for the most part against the shelving rocks on which the city is built. Ancient splendour, and present desolation, are the images universally stamped upon these patrician abodes; which the wealth of Europe once assisted to raise, when the merchants of Genoa were the creditors of nearly all its potentates.

'Next to the miracles of art, which enrich the palaces of Italy, the object which most attracts a housewife's observation is the furniture; and in spite of the beauties of the *Guidos* and *Vandykes*, I was ever and anon

" Casting

"Casting mine eye the chamber all about,
To see how duly eche thyng in order was," SKELTON.

And, indeed, "*eche thyng in order was*," as it had been late a century and a half back, which seemed to be the general state of the furniture. Some immovable, shallow-seated, high-backed, perpendicular chairs, clothed in faded damask and in Genoese velvet, were ranged regimentally against the walls, headed by an untenable sofa, that looked like the drum-major of the company; gilt brackets, marble slabs, and girandoles tied up in bags, (the nestling-places of the musquittoes of many generations,) usually made up the whole set-out of these magnificent rooms, where every thing was to be found but cleanliness, comfort, and accommodation. There is, however, one palace in Genoa, that has an interest apart from every other; and though it may be said to be rather the tomb than the cradle of Genoese greatness — to commemorate its last respirations of freedom and glory, than its prime of prosperity — it will still attract the notice of the foreign traveller, so long as a fragment of its marble columns shall remain, or the name of *Andrea Doria* shall live in the records of Genoese patriotism. This fine, old, desolate edifice, (raised by him who rescued Genoa from the chain which the foreign and domestic foes of Italian independence had imposed upon nearly the whole of the Peninsula,) rises on the sea-shore at the entrance of the city, an appropriate site for the dwelling of the patriot admiral: — and its porticos and colonnades command a view of that port, where the young Columbus first launched his fairy bark, and commenced those venturous voyages, which were afterwards to open a new world to the enterprises and cupidity of man. In the court of this vast fabric, stands a statue of *Andrea Doria*, under the figure of a colossal Neptune. But the statue is much defaced, the symbols of the Deity are broken and scattered, porticos fall, fountains are dried up, the grey lichen creeps upon the sculptured trophy, and the sea urges its impetuous tides over the proud domains of him, who once rode triumphantly on its waves! We had long ranged the dreary and silent apartments of this immense palace, reposed under its colonnades, and examined its frescos, without catching a sound but the blast that whistled through its porticos, or the flutter of the sea-birds nestling in its sculptured friezes; and we should have supposed it wholly uninhabited, but for the apparition of a ragged little girl in that hall where kings had been guests, and emperors feasted, who told us she was the "*guardian of these ruined towers*." There was, indeed, no necessity for a *Cicerone* in the palace of the *Doria*. The presence of such a person would have profaned the place; for, except the stately edifice itself falling to ruin, there was nothing to see but some of the fading frescos of *PIERINO DEL VAGA*. His most celebrated work in the *Doria*, the *Shipwreck of Æneas*, has vanished; and his *Jupiter aiming Thunderbolts at the Giants*, was covered with the milky tints of time and negligence! —

To the patrician street of *Genoa*, to its churches, its palaces, private or public, the city itself, *en masse*, forms a striking and mortify-

mortifying contrast ; it is an assemblage of narrow lanes, so narrow as not to admit the passage of any vehicle whatever ; the houses are higher than the palaces, overstocked with a crowded population, and admirably constructed for propagating either pestilence or fire, with a terrible rapidity. In many places the inhabitants may, if they please, shake hands across the streets ; they indeed, in many respects, live *en famille*, for their houses seem kept rather to sleep than to live in. They are all at their doors, in their shops, or ranged along the narrow pathway in their little stalls or bulks ; or sometimes, without either, presiding over their baskets of fruit, flowers, vegetables, and macaroni, or spinning, knitting, sewing, singing, or gossiping : here too they dine, or sup, for few, except the first and most respectable tradesmen, resort to their dark rooms behind the shops, to any regular meal ; they are seen supping their "*Minestra*," eating their raw sausage, or ham and cheese, and consuming all sorts of vegetables, &c., like people so unsophisticated as to believe that the mere purposes of eating are to satisfy the cravings of appetite.

• The street occupied exclusively by the *goldsmiths* is extremely amusing. Its glittering and rich shops are, contrary to all established rule, not for the great, but for the little ; and the profusion of gold and silver filigree-work, clasps, rings, ear-rings, chains, combs, pearl, coral, and even of more costly gems, are all for the peasantry. The nobility were in the latter times of the Republic prohibited from wearing such sumptuous ornaments ; and the lower classes are still, as formerly, the sole purchasers of the old-fashioned jewellery of the Genoese goldsmiths. The women are covered, even on working days, with gold and silver ornaments ; on holidays they add a profusion of pearl and coral to their ordinary decorations ; — and we were assured by an eminent goldsmith in Genoa, that even now, a female peasant making up her marriage *trousseau*, thinks seven or eight hundred francs a very moderate price for a necklace or chain.

• The few *piazze*, or squares, of Genoa, open round the principal churches, while every *viccolo*, or narrow passage, abounds with shrines, oratories, and stations, of which an Amazonian *Madonna* is always the sign : votive candles, hourly renewed, burn before these public altars, and the street piety of Genoa is only exceeded by that of Naples, which in this respect it resembles. Every where offerings are making, processions are moving, hymns are selling, and monks and nuns are invoking or begging. In all this, however, there is neither gloom nor austerity. The monks are jolly — the nuns are gay — and the votarists, more zealous than meditative, are bustling, elbowing, laughing, praying, whispering, and chanting. In every stall psalms and legends are hung up, like rows of ballads in the less devout streets of other cities. The stories of sinners become saints are set forth in strains that belong rather to the frailty than contrition of the penitent. The *Magdalen* here tells her story in phrases adapted to the passionate melodies of *PAESIELLO* ; and *Saint Therese* leaves the enamoured "*Didone*" of the Opera far behind in the expression of pathetic ardour,

adour. The warm-souled Italians see nothing in all this contrary to the sacred sobriety of religion, and sing Saint Theresa's invocation of

"*Dammi morte, o dammi amore ;*" &c.

with the same faith and unction as they would chant the seven penitential Psalms, or the canticles of Job.

Much vivacity and point distinguish the sketch of a Florentine studio ; mixed with more good humour than Lady M. is apt to exhibit.

The studio of a sculptor is always a delightful place to visit : that of Signor *Bartolini* is particularly so to an English traveller, because it is a "*brief abstract and chronicle of the times*" and country to which he belongs ; where a physiognomist might give a lecture on British heads, from subjects supplied by those three great councils of the nation — the House of Lords, the House of Commons, and Almack's. There is scarcely a living bust in Great Britain, on which fashion has set her mark or notoriety stamped her signature, that may not be found in the studio and galleries of Signor *Bartolini*, dispersed among the heads of antique sages or republican worthies. Here the wooden face of some great captain of the present day shadows the finely cut features of the chief of some Condottieri band of the past — there the sharp intelligent traits of *Machiavel* mock the imbecile placidity of a modern ministerial countenance — the Venus's of *Phidias* and *Praxiteles* yield every where to the Venus's of St. James's — English dandies niche themselves on the same shelf with Grecian sages, and the jacobinical head of the author of *Florence Macarthy* stands close beside the cranium of an ultra-royalist reviewer. But while Signor *Bartolini* is reckoned one of the first portrait-sculptors in Italy, as he is unquestionably the most fashionable, he has established his claim to a higher rank in his noble art, by his beautiful "*Bacchus pressing Grapes*." It is said to have the stamp of the *true antique*, by the *connoisseurs* ; by the *ignoranti*, it is admired because it has the stamp of nature.

We select the subsequent passages from innumerable others of great brilliancy and force, as undeniable proofs of Lady Morgan's genius. The first relates to some sculpture in the church of San Lorenzo at Florence, the other to a painting by Raphael :

These tombs are the treasures of *San Lorenzo*, not for the worthless ashes they inclose, but as the most vigorous efforts of Michael Angelo's mighty hand.* The first is a sarcophagus ;

* The physical forces of Michael Angelo seem equal to his moral conceptions ; his chisel, like the bow of Ulysses, was only to be wielded by his own hand ; and it fell with a force that, I have heard the first sculptors in Italy say, (and among others *CANOVA*), seemed almost impossible to human strength.

and

and on either side are two colossal figures, called "*Day and Night*." This singular monument seems to have no reference whatever to the insignificant subject, to perpetuate whose memory it was raised. Michael Angelo probably thought not of him. He may just then have had some glorious type in his own mind, and seized on the occasion thus presented by pride and wealth for realizing it. The figure of DAY almost moves in the marble; there is a bold, rude, restless vigour in every limb and muscle, that gives it a vital character; and yet, powerful and magnificent as it is, the petulance of a genius, that could not brook the inadequacy of human force to realize its inspirations, did not permit Michael Angelo to finish it. The splendid works which he left behind him incomplete, seem to indicate that he expected to have called forth perfection by a blow or a breath; and he flung away the chisel of the artist, when he could not direct it with the creative energy of a god. Lady Morgan of NIGHT looks like Sorrow that slumbers.—

‘Whenever Albano mentioned the name of Raphael, he always uncovered his head, in token of a reverence that amounted to adoration; and the portrait by Raphael of Pope Julio the Second, at the Pitti, almost justifies this religious enthusiasm. The Pope is seated in an arm-chair (in itself a portrait); before him stands a table richly draped; a beautifully sculptured bell (probably Cellini's famous bell), and some books, lie on the table. The large golden reading-glass, which the Pope seems just to have lowered from his eye, and holds in his hand, is also fine workmanship. Julio's comely but characteristic countenance, marked by the intense expression of one who listens to a detail full of interest to the hearer, is turned towards a monk, who is making the important communication. But that monk!—such a head!—such a visage!—his fine, fearful, and pallid face, lighted up by the bright, black, Italian eye;—contrasting its acute sagacity, and artful vigilance of the impression his eloquence is making, to the impetuous vehemence and florid colouring of his auditor, whom unlimited power placed beyond the necessity of dissimulation. Opposed to these two speaking physiognomies is the placid, insignificant face of the *Camerlingo*, who, with his *antichambre* look of pliant subserviency, stands behind the Pope's chair.’

‘The lively gossip concerning the Medicean Venus is amusing, though not in the best taste. The word *Becky*, which is not very intelligible to us, though explained by what follows, seems to belong to a sort of vulgar *gibberish* which too often disfigures the sprightliness of the author's familiar style:

‘The vanity would be unpardonable, and the bad taste obvious, which should tempt a traveller of the present day to enter on all the details of that stupendous collection, on which volumes have been written, to be found in every library in England, from that which belongs to the public in Conduit-Street, to the smallest assortment that decorates the hanging shelf of a lady's dressing-room.

Yet

Yet it is difficult to pass by the *Tribune*, where, as every body has said, since Thomson wrote it, near a century back, reigns

“ That bending statue that delights the world.” *

Above all, it is most difficult for short ladies and “ dumpy women” to pass on without dropping one bead, or telling one *ave* before the shrine of that tiny goddess, whose four feet eleven inches render her the “ *Madonna della Comforta*” of all who have

“ Found the blessedness of being little.” SHAKSPEARE.

It belongs to this age of anti-beau-idealism, that even the Venus which has been eulogized, from Pliny to Byron, in an unbroken series of raptures, should fall, like the emerald dish of Genoa, into the unsparing hands of science; that the beautiful head which has turned so many others, should be discovered to belong to a Becky, and that the goddess of love should be neither more nor less than an idiot. Venus, however, is not called upon to be a wit; and the disciples of craniology may, if they please, take refuge from the silly head, “ too small for an intellectual being,” in that *foot* which a critic of another school has declared to be “ a monument in itself.”

But, alas! it is not from modern science alone that the Venus de Medicis has to defend itself. Modern scepticism has been equally busy in its attacks. Cochin and Lessing have both declared against the antiquity of the head; the right arm is given to one modern artist, the left to another. The feet are pronounced to have undergone a compound fracture. “ *Tout le reste*,” however, it is comfortable to know, “ *est évidemment antique*, — à l'exception de quelques petits morceaux dans le corps et ailleurs.”

The treasures of art in the museums of Florence are detailed with spirit and effect; and we will introduce our readers to a cabinet of curiosities worthy of their notice, followed by a specimen of the writer's power of general criticism.

The Cabinet of Gems — the boudoir of a Cræsus, or a Sheba, is a thing in itself unique, and peculiar to the age, the family, and the country, of which it is an epitome. This room or casket,

“ Enchased with all the riches of the world,”

is worthy, by its beauty and magnificence, of its splendid deposit. Four columns of purest oriental alabaster, and four of precious *verd-antique*, support the glittering roof of this cabinet. Six armoires of exquisite workmanship contain the brilliant produce of Indian mines, sculptured into every form, receiving every impression which the magic finger of Genius could give to their unyielding surfaces. For this, Cellini was forced to neglect his Perseus, Bandinello his Hercules, and Valerio Vicentio, to give those powers to chiselling a toy, which might have produced a Laocoon, or a Niobe. This cabinet is a monument of a new and

* Thomson's lines are;

“ So stands the statue that enchants the world,
So bending tries to veil the matchless boast,
The mingled beauties of exulting Greece.” Rev.

rare

rare epoch in the history of the arts — it marks a period when public taste declined with public spirit, and when the caprice of powerful individuals, seconded by their unparalleled wealth, gave a fantastic direction to talent; and, diverting it from its higher purposes, substituted private patronage for public encouragement; and replaced the stimulus of competition by the salary of dependence. The six armoires of the Cabinet of Gems are decorated with eight columns of agate, and eight of crystal, whose vases and capitals are studded with topazes and turquoises. They contain vases cut out of rubies, and urns each

“Of one entire perfect crysolite,”

cups of emerald, in saucers of onyx; Roman emperors, in calcedony; and Roman beauties, shedding from their amethyst brows the true *lumen purpureum* of love and loveliness. But the objects most curious are, St. Paul and Peter preaching, in jasper; a knight fighting in a mail of diamonds; a pearl dog, with a tail of gold and paws of rubies; Duke Cosimo the Second, in gold and enamel, praying before an altar of gems and jewels; and a shrine of crystal, representing the Passion: the whole infinitely fitter for a Parisian *Magazin de Bijouterie* in the Palais Royal, than for the high altar, for which they were destined by the toy-shop piety of that true Medici, Pope Clement the Seventh.

‘The Dutch, Flemish, and Venetian schools, are eminently rich, and elegantly disposed in apartments worthy their possession. There are a verity and a life in the works of the Flemish painters, that bring them more home to the feelings than the productions of any other school. This is a merit peculiar to nations unshackled by the conventional ideas of academies, and the aristocratic prejudices which exist where the great body of mankind are “*canaille*.” The scenes of domestic enjoyment; the exhibition of pleasures, which are placed within the reach of humble life, and which, if sometimes coarse, are always exhilarating; the faithful representations of rural nature, that abound in the works of the Dutch and Flemish painters — afford a gratifying relief to the murders of the martyrology, and the unmeaning miracles of Roman legends, forced upon the genius of the Italian painters, and repeated to perfect nausea in Italian collections. Whatever may be the pictorial merits of different schools, one brilliant landscape of Claude, that warms and lights the chamber of the Flemish collection, is, *morally*, worth a whole army of martyrs.’

We cannot forbear to add some interesting particulars of Leonardo da Vinci:

‘The Tuscan school is naturally rich and very exquisite; some of the prime works of the Hierophants of the art are preserved here. In this precious cabinet is the famous Medusa head of Leonardo da Vinci, the work of his wondrous boyhood! Old “*Messire Pietro*,” his father, an honest notary of Florence, who took great pride in the talents of his son, requested him to paint a buckler for a peasant who dwelt near his own *Podere* of Vinci. When Leonardo produced his work, the old man fled in horror.

This

This buckler was the Medusa's head, for which the Duke Galeas Sforza of Milan afterwards gave three hundred ducats ; and which is now deemed one of the most precious treasures of the gallery of Florence. It is a fact, that the venomous reptiles which tress the fine head of the Medusa, owe their terrific vitality to the deep study of the young artist in living specimens. When his shield was finished, his closet was found filled with the noxious productions of marshes and fens, the *originals* of the serpents, which hiss and dart round the brow of the dying monster, whose last sigh seems to mingle with their pestiferous breath.'

It is time, however, for us to close these volumes : of which the varied and interesting subjects might lead us on to an indefinite extent.

If it be necessary to particularize those defects to which we have adverted in a preceding page, and which may be best classed under the head of bad taste, we may give one out of almost innumerable examples, in which the charm of an agreeable tone of composition is suddenly destroyed by a lapse into vulgarity. It is a singular inconsistency, and shews a lamentable unconsciousness of her own faults, that, towards the close of the passage, Lady Morgan speaks of '*elegant and refined literature*' as the '*peculiar province of women*.'

'The ladies of Milan, well acquainted with the classic poets of their own country, and with some few modern productions of fashionable popularity, or political interest, have not yet made a decided progress in literature. Obligated, as good Catholics, to obtain permission from the Pope to read any thing beyond a missal, or a legend, they have at once to encounter the restrictions upon intellect, imposed by the licensed interference of the priesthood, and the apprehension of being accused of "*facendo la literata* ;" and this consciousness frequently induces those who read much, to conceal all. One good result arises from this apparent absence of literary cultivation : there is no literary pretension — of all pretensions the most insufferable and insipid. In Milan, no ductile dulness meanders in the worn track of periodical criticism ; no "*slipshod Sibyl*" of the middle class of life *todies* the sentimentality of rank with the scraps and leavings of Albums and guide-books ; and no "*lively dunce*" of fashion, led by some Corypheus of blue-stocking celebrity, issues edicts of approbation or dislike, and proves

" *Qu'une sotte savante est plus sotte, qu'une sotte ignorante.*"

'If, however, penal codes formerly existed, and are now again rigidly enforced against the cultivation of female intellect, impulses have been given to the taste and talent of the women of Lombardy never to be silenced ; and I have myself too many proofs of their genius for epistolary composition, to doubt that those who are now prevented from *reading* books may be fully capable of writing them, and of adding to that stock of elegant

and

and refined literature, which it peculiarly belongs to the taste, tact, and sensibility of women to enrich and to improve. But impediments are now thrown in the march of mind, with which genius of whatever sex or calling is doomed for the present to struggle. To retrograde, not to advance, is the order of the times: to *dull*, and not to *brighten*, their policy;

“ And sure *if* Dulness sees a grateful day,
’Tis in the shade of *arbitrary* sway.”

We must also censure the affectation of such phrases as prescriptiveness of feudality, despotism of authorial arrangement, steeped in romanticism, &c. When her object is only to amuse, Lady Morgan is seldom unsuccessful; and we may compare her lighter and happier efforts to those schools of painting which she seems most to admire, — the Dutch, Flemish, and Venetian. Of these, the characteristics are brilliant colouring, contrast, variety, bustle, spirited details, pleasing imitation; and in such traits consist also the excellence of Lady Morgan: — but she disqualifies herself for the more dignified walks of the art, by her inattention to the very first principle of the sublime, viz. simplicity.

ART. II. *The Life of William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury*, compiled principally from original and scarce Documents. With an Appendix, containing *Fur Prædestinatus*, Modern Policies, and three Sermons, by Archbishop Sancroft; also, a Life of the learned Henry Wharton; and two Letters of Dr. Sanderson, now first published from the Archiepiscopal Library at Lambeth Palace. By George D'Oyly, D.D. F.R.S. Domestic Chaplain to His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury; Rector of Lambeth, and of Sundridge in Kent. 2 Vols. 8vo. 17. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

THE principal events of the life of Archbishop Sancroft have been well detailed, and his character fairly given, by most writers who have treated of the times of James II. and of William III. Yet still we think that the public will consider themselves as indebted to Dr. D'Oyly for his minute research into the scarce and original documents to which he has had access; with the view of examining more particularly, and of authenticating, the history of a prelate who, whatever may be thought of the soundness of his judgment or the consistency of his conduct, was a man of unquestionable honesty and sincerity; and whose singular fate it was to oppose in a most particular manner the encroachments of James, and afterward to sacrifice the primacy of England rather than acknowledge the authority of William.

Very

Very early in life, Dr. Sancroft gave a proof of the same sincerity which accompanied him to the grave: for in the year 1651 he incurred the forfeiture of his fellowship at Cambridge, rather than take the oaths of the Covenant and the Engagement. In a short time afterward, he published his first work, intitled "*Fur Prædestinatus*," being a dialogue in Latin between a thief on the eve of his execution, and a Calvinist preacher. It is an admirable exposure of antinomianism. The thief gives a history of his life, containing profligacy and enormities of every kind, which, he states, were inevitable, and ordained by God's decree; and, whenever the preacher interposes, he is silenced by a quotation from some Calvinist author on the doctrine of necessity, and of God being in a certain sense the cause of evil. The thief goes on to express his great joy in the assurance which he has of being one of the elect, and the preacher is again foiled with the sinner's quotations. The whole tract is full of point and excellent wit.

His next production, called "*Modern Policies, taken from Machiavel, Borgia, and other choice Authors, by an Eye-witness*," and published about a year after the first, is a satire on the prevalent fanaticism and hypocrisy of the day, and contains some excellent passages: but it is not, on the whole, equal to the former tract in terseness and neatness of style. — In the year 1657, the writer quitted England with an intention of residing in Holland, at that time the grand receptacle for faithful royalists, but was persuaded by a friend to join him in a tour through the south of Europe. The restoration of Charles II. having brought Sancroft back to England, he was appointed chaplain to Bishop Cosine, and preached a sermon on the first consecration which took place after the sovereign's recovery of his throne. We extract a passage to shew the high notions which the author entertained on the origin of church-government; expressed in a manner which to some of our readers may seem not very intelligible, and to others not very conclusive:

' Suarez the Spanish Jesuit, that he may have something to confute in the English sect (as he will needs call us), saith confidently, that the power of order with us is nothing else but a deputation of certain persons by the temporal magistrate, to do those acts which he himself much more might do; made indeed with some kind of ceremonies, but those esteemed arbitrary and unnecessary to the effect, which would follow as well without them, by the king's sole deputation. A calumny, which the whole business of this day most solemnly refutes: a kind of a second nag's head fable, a fil of the same race, both sire and dam, begotten by the father of lies upon a slanderous tongue, and so sent post

post about the world, to tell false tidings of the English; an incredible, as that our kings excommunicate, or Queen Elizabeth preached. Would they have been just, or ingenuous, they should have laid the brat at the physician's door, who was the father of it: not the beloved Physician, though his name comes high; (Erastus, but not Ἀγαπῆτος;) no, his praise was not in the Gospel, but a physician in Geneva, learned, and eminent enough. It is remarkable that, in the same place, and about the same time, (so unlucky an ascendant hath error and mistake upon some persons!) should three conceits be hatched concerning church-government, which, like three furies, have vexed the quiet of the church ever since. For the consistorial and congregational pretences were twins of the same birth; though the younger served the elder, and, being much overpowered, sunk in the stream of time, till it appeared again in this unhappy age, amongst the ghosts of so many revived errors, that have escaped from their tombs to walk up and down and disturb the world. And, not long after, this physician too would needs step out of his own profession, to mistake in two other at once, policy and divinity, running a risk of setting ill-understanding betwixt them, had not abler and wiser heads than he stepped in, and so evenly cut the thread, so exactly stated the controversy, and asserted the very due on either side, that there remains now no ground, either of jealousy among friends; or, one would think, of slander from enemies. And yet even some of our own too, (which we have reason more deeply to resent,) would needs bear the world in hand, when time was, that the claim of episcopal power, as from Christ and his apostles, was an assault upon the right of our kings, and tended to the disherison of the crown. As if the calling might not stand by Divine right, and yet the adjuncts and appendages of it by human bounty: as if the office itself might not be from Christ, and yet the exercise of it only by, and under, the permission of pious kings: or, as if the church might not owe the keys of the kingdom of Heaven, both that of order and that of jurisdiction too, (purely spiritual, I mean, and without any temporal effect,) to the donation of Christ; and yet, at the same time, owe all their coactive power in the external regimen (which is one of the keys of the kingdoms of this world, for the enforcing of obedience by constraint) to the political sanction. These things thus clearly distinguished, I cannot see why we may not with some consequence infer the apostolical, and, at least, in consequence thereupon, the Divine right of our ecclesiastical hierarchy, how harsh soever it sounds, either at Rome or Geneva; and though the hills about Trent resounded loud with the echo of that noise, and stiff debate, which passed upon that argument within the walls of that council. However they like it on this side the hills or beyond, St. Paul stands firmly by us, and voucheth the grand charter of his apostolate for all: *Me me, adsum qui fecit* — It was I, the Apostle of Jesus Christ, that left Titus to ordain elders in Crete; and what *ἡγεμὼν* will be found for this argument? It was the Holy Ghost that made you bishops, saith the same apostle to the elders at Miletus; so that

that these are no Milesian fables, but the words of truth and soberness, a part of the Holy and Divine *Πραξαίεργων*, the real acts and geste of the apostles of Christ; nay, the act and deed of Christ himself by his apostle, according to that rule of the Hebrews, *Apostolus, cujusq. est, ut quisque*. And so much for the original of the power.

The Doctor was soon afterward promoted to the deanery of St. Paul's. In 1668, he was appointed Archdeacon of Cambridge; and in 1677, to his own surprise, as well as that of all who were acquainted with his recluse habits, he was, on the death of Archbishop Sheldon, elevated at once to the primacy. His zeal against the Jesuits was very ardent, as we may judge by the ensuing quotation from one of the sermons which, certainly without being aware of the King's real faith, he preached to the House of Peers in 1678.

‘For instance, (the instance of the present time,) the devils of sedition and faction, of treason and rebellion, those familiars of Rome, and Rheims, and St. Omers, (the Jesuits I mean, that have so long possessed and agitated a wretched part of this nation,) will never go out from hence, and leave us at quiet, no, not by prayer and fasting only. Nay, the best laws we have, the best you can make, (if they be not steadily, and severely executed,) will prove too slight a conjuration for these sturdy evil spirits of disobedience. There is another and a better *Flagellum Dæmonum*, than that of *Hieronymus Mengis*, and his fellow-exorcists. Holy water is a trifle; and holy words will not do it. There is no such thing as *Medicina per verba*: words and talk will never cure the distempers of a nation. Deaf adders refuse all the voice of the charmer, charm he never so wisely. If, in good earnest, we would be rid of this legion, and say, as our Lord to the deaf and dumb spirit, Go out, and enter no more; (what shall I say? — in short,) Solomon's rod for the back of fools that grow troublesome or dangerous (as it may be prepared and managed) is a very powerful and effectual exorcism. Untamed horses, and skittish mules, that will have no understanding, are not edified at all by calm reasonings, and instructions and meek remonstrances; nor in any other method so well as by David's expedient; *in freno et como*; their mouths must be kept in with bit and bridle, that it may not be possible for them to fall upon you; and so ye may be secure of them.’

Dr. Sancroft's notions, also, of the duties of a subject, who should receive in quiet submission the mandates of Parliament and of the Council-chamber, and not intermeddle in state-affairs, are very fully developed by him in another passage in the same sermon, while he was addressing himself to ‘the more popular part of his mixed audience.’

‘Let my counsel, I pray, be acceptable unto you. Study to be quiet, and to do your own business: and that lies not in the
 Rev. Nov. 1821. R court,

court, or in the palace, but ~~not~~ in the temple. It is not to listen at the doors of the two Houses of Parliament, or to ever drop the Council-chamber; but to wait in your proper stations with modesty and patience, ~~when~~ ^{while} ~~advice~~ ^{advice} and commands are sent you from thence, and to comply with them. Instead of thronging and pestering the galleries and avenues of those places, where matters of state are upon the table; what a blessed appearance were it in times of danger, such as this is, to see the church doors always open, and the great stream and shoal of people continually flowing thither; and to find some of you always upon the floor there, weeping between the porch and the altar, and saying, Spare thy people, O Lord, and give not thy heritage to reproach. Thou hast brought up a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen, and planted it. Let ~~not~~ the wild boar out of the wood root it up, nor the wild beast of the field devour it. Let thy hand be upon the man of thy right hand, whom thou hast made so strong for thyself. Keep him, as the apple of thine eye; hide him under the shadow of thy wings. Let his days be many, and his reign prosperous; and under his shadow let both church and state long flourish: and let them be confounded, and driven backward, as many as have evil will at Sion.'

In 1685, on the accession of King James II., Sancroft's difficulties began. His aversion from the Roman Catholic religion amounted to intolerance; yet, on the other hand, he was brought up in the doctrine of passive obedience, and considered the oath of allegiance as binding on the subject under all circumstances, notwithstanding any extent to which the sovereign might violate his duty of protection. The King was bigoted to his priests and to his adopted faith, and had scarcely taken possession of his throne when he began his attack on the church. The circumstances of Archbishop Sancroft declining to act under the ecclesiastical commission which James issued, and of his petitioning with the six bishops against reading the King's declaration for liberty of conscience, are sufficiently known to every one*: but the particulars of the interview which the prelates had with James are so shortly stated by Burnett, that our readers will be glad to be presented with a more minute account of that extraordinary occurrence, in part written and altogether revised by Sancroft himself. It is indeed a curious narrative.

* On Friday, June 8th, at five in the afternoon, his Majesty came into the privy council. About half an hour after, the Archbishop and six bishops, who were in attendance in the next room, were called into the Council-chamber, and graciously received by his Majesty.

* See an account of this transaction, *Evelyn's Memoirs*, Rev. vol. xci. N. S. p. 272—274.

The Lord Chancellor took a paper then lying on the table, and showing it to the Archbishop, asked him in words to this effect:

“Is this the petition that was written and signed by your Grace, and which these bishops presented to his Majesty?”

The Archbishop received the paper from the Lord Chancellor, and addressing himself to the King, spoke to this purpose:

“Sir, I am called hither as a criminal, which I never was before in my life; and little thought I ever should be, especially before your Majesty; but, since it is my unhappiness to be so at this time, I hope your Majesty will not be offended, that I am cautious of answering questions. No man is obliged to answer questions, that may tend to the accusing of himself.”

His Majesty called this chicanery, and hoped he would not deny his hand.

The Archbishop still insisted that there could be no other end of this question, but to draw such an answer from him as might afford ground for an accusation, and, therefore, begged that no answer might be required of him. The Bishop of St. Asaph said, “All divines are agreed in this, that no man in our circumstances is obliged to answer any such question.” The King still pressing for an answer with some seeming impatience, the Archbishop said, “Sir, though we are not obliged to give any answer to this question, yet, if your Majesty lays your commands upon us, we shall answer it, in trust, upon your Majesty’s justice and generosity, that we shall not suffer for our obedience, as we must, if our answer should be brought in evidence against us.” His Majesty said, “No, I will not command you; if you will deny your own hands, I know not what to say to you.” The Lord Chancellor then desired them to withdraw.

After about half a quarter of an hour, they were called in again. Then the Lord Chancellor said, “His Majesty has commanded me to require you to answer this question, Whether these be your hands which are set to this petition?” His Majesty himself also said, “I command you to answer this question.” Then the Archbishop took the petition, and having read it over, acknowledged that he wrote and signed it. The other bishops also acknowledged their respective signatures.

The following questions were put by the King at this interview, and thus answered by some of the bishops:

Q. Is this your petition?

A. Pray, Sir, give us leave to see it; and if, upon perusal, it appears to be the same ———. Yes, Sir, this is our petition, and these are our subscriptions.

Q. Who were present at the forming of it?

A. All we, who have subscribed it.

Q. Were no other persons present?

A. It is our great infelicity, that we are here as criminals; and your Majesty is so just and generous, that you will not require us to accuse either ourselves or others.

Q. Upon what occasion came you to London?

A. I received an intimation from the Archbishop, that my advice and assistance was required in the affairs of the church.

Q. What were the affairs which you consulted of?

A. The matter of the petition.

Q. What is the temper you are ready to come to with the Dissenters?

A. We refer ourselves to the petition.

Q. What mean you by the dispensing power being declared illegal in parliament?

A. The words are so plain that we cannot use any plainer.

Q. What want of prudence or honour is there in obeying the King?

A. What is against conscience is against prudence, and honour too, especially in persons of our character.

Q. Why is it against your conscience?

A. Because our consciences oblige us (as far as we are able) to preserve our laws and religion according to the Reformation.

Q. Is the dispensing power then against the law?

A. We refer ourselves to the petition.

Q. How could the distributing and reading the Declaration make you parties to it?

A. We refer ourselves to our petition, whether the common and reasonable construction of mankind would not make it so.

Q. Did you disperse a printed letter in the country, or otherwise dissuade any of the clergy from reading it?

A. If this be one of the articles of misdemeanour against us, we desire to answer it with the rest.

General. We acknowledge the petition: we are summoned to appear here to answer such matters of misdemeanour as should be objected; we therefore humbly desire a copy of our charge, and that time convenient may be allowed us to advise about it, and answer it. We are here in obedience to his Majesty's command to receive our charge, but humbly desire we may be excused from answering questions from whence occasion may be taken against us.

They were now commanded to withdraw. After a while they were called in a third time. Then the Lord Chancellor told them, "It is his Majesty's pleasure to have you proceeded against for this petition; but it shall be with all fairness in Westminster Hall: there will be an information against you, which you are to answer; and, in order to that, you are to enter into a recognizance." The Archbishop said, that without a recognizance they should be ready to appear and to answer, whensoever they were called. One of the bishops said, the Lord Lovelace had been called before the council to answer to a complaint that was brought in against him, and that he was allowed to answer it in Westminster Hall, without entering into any recognizance; and that they hoped they might be allowed to answer in like nature. The Lord Chancellor said, the Lord Lovelace had affronted his Majesty, and had behaved himself very rudely before them; and, therefore, his Majesty would have him proceeded against in the common way; but, for the bishops

bishops there present, his Majesty was pleased to treat them with all favour in respect of their character, and therefore he would have them enter into recognizance. His Majesty was pleased to say, "I offer you this as a favour, and I would not have you refuse it." The Bishop of St. Asaph said, "Whatsoever favour your Majesty vouchsafes to offer to any person, you are pleased to leave it to him whether he will accept it or no; and you do not expect he should accept it to his own prejudice. We conceive, that this entering into recognizance may be prejudicial to us; and therefore we hope your Majesty will not be offended at our declining it." Then the Lord Chancellor said, "There are but three ways to proceed in matters of this kind; it must be either by commitment, or by recognizance, or by subpœna out of King's Bench. His Majesty was not willing to take the common way in proceeding against you; but he would give you leave to enter into recognizance;" and his Lordship again advised them to accept it. Some of the bishops said, they were informed that no man was obliged to enter into recognizance, unless there were special matter against him, and that alleged upon oath: this they said, not considering that now the petition was made special matter, and that their confessing it was as good as an oath. But at last they insisted on this, that there was no precedent for it, that any member of the House of Peers should be bound in recognizance for misdemeanour. The Lord Chancellor said there were precedents for it; but, being desired to name one, he named none. The bishops desired to be proceeded against in the common way; but that was not allowed, and they were a third time commanded to withdraw.

While after, they were called in a fourth time, and asked, whether they had considered of it better? and, whether they would accept his Majesty's favour? The Archbishop said, he had the advice of the best counsel in town; and they had warned him against entering into recognizance, assuring him it would be to his prejudice; and therefore he begged that it might not be required, offering his promise again to appear and to answer, whensoever he should be called. But his Majesty seemed to be displeased, and said, "You will believe others before you will believe me." So they were the fourth time commanded to withdraw.

Some time after, the Earl of Berkeley, one of the noblemen about the court, came from the Council-chamber to the bishops, and endeavoured first to persuade the Archbishop, and afterwards the other bishops, to enter into recognizance. Referring to a conversation he had with the Archbishop a short time before, in which he understood him to say that he should be willing to enter into recognizance, if required, he seemed to think it strange that his Grace should now refuse it. The fact, no doubt is, that his Grace may have expressed himself in conversation, as willing to take this step; but that, afterwards, as has been stated, he and the other bishops were strongly advised against it by their legal friends. The Earl remained with them for some time, earnestly urging the point, and saying, that if it were his own case, he should do it. At last, finding them all resolved, he returned to

the Council-chamber. About half an hour after, a sergeant at arms came forth from thence with a warrant signed with fourteen hands to carry the seven prelates to the Tower; and another warrant, with nineteen hands and seals annexed, addressed to the lieutenant of the Tower, to keep them in safe custody.'

We shall not dwell on the issue of the contest which ensued. The whole of James's conduct seems to have been governed by infatuation. — On the King's first departure from his capital, Sancroft was foremost to sign the address to the Prince of Orange, praying him to summon a parliament; and, though the fact is not very plainly told by Dr. D'Oyly, the Archbishop himself went from Guildhall, and demanded the keys of the Tower, which he received, and delivered over to Lord Lucas. James afterward returned to London, and Sancroft waited on him as his lawful sovereign: but that monarch's precipitate flight, in consequence of the private message which he received from the Prince of Orange, disconcerted his adherents, and perplexed Sancroft's conscience interminably. The old doctrines of passive obedience came over his mind again, and he recollected all his antient abhorrence of rebellion and insubordination, and of every principle that by the remotest consequence could imply any deposing power in subjects. Burnett says that he consented to wait on the Prince of Orange, but when the appointed time arrived could not be persuaded to go. Though he had been during a great part of his life immersed in the study of distinctions, and all the nice subtilties of casuistry, he found new scruples suggesting themselves every day. He therefore put all the arguments *pro* and *con.* upon paper; and, when all public functionaries were required to take an oath of allegiance to King William, he mooted all the points of abdication, of conquest, of the power of the states of the realm, and of the original compact: — but nothing could satisfy him. Yet, if the doctrine of passive obedience was to be maintained and obeyed, he had already gone much too far; for, as it has been very pointedly observed, "where was that doctrine of passive obedience and loyalty when Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, (the first who signed the Prince of Orange's invitation to the city,) went from Guildhall and demanded the keys of the Tower of Sir Bevil Skelton, King James's lieutenant, in the name of the Lord Mayor and the lords spiritual and temporal then assembled at Guildhall; which the lieutenant delivered to him, and he delivered the same (as by order from the Lords, &c.) to the Lord Lucas, who took immediate possession thereof, which would have been as real acts of *lèse majesté*, if King James had not forfeited the duty

duty and obedience of his subjects, as if he had stabbed him to the heart." *

In consequence of the scruples which beset the Archbishop's mind, and which would not allow him to adopt the requisites for continuing in his dignity that were imposed by parliament, he was suspended in the middle of the year 1688, and deprived of the primacy in the beginning of 1690. Five bishops, and about four hundred clergymen, were ejected from their sees and benefices about the same time, on the same ground; and it is a singular fact that William III. quietly established his claim as deliverer of the Church of England, notwithstanding the opposition of so large a portion of its members, and in particular of the primate himself. — Sancroft died in retirement in the year 1693, at the age of 77.

We can never permit ourselves to speak otherwise than with the most profound respect of the moral character of a person who despised all worldly advantages, when they came in competition with his sincerity; and we willingly forget all the petty foibles of his character, his peevishness, his austerities, and his habit of attaching importance to trifles. We do not even wish to dwell on those darker traits in his portrait, his spiritual pride and his intolerance. Dr. Sancroft was certainly a man of perfect integrity; and let none who cannot make the same boast glory in having fewer imperfections, or seek to detract from his memory by singling out and enumerating the infirmities of an honest mind.

Of Sancroft's literary character we have already intimated our opinion. As a writer, he was too fond of quotations and of fantastic images: but these, Dr. D'Oyly observes, 'if defects they are,' were the common defects in the taste of the age. Since the Doctor inserts this hesitating clause, and this palliation, we shall extract an example or two, that our readers may have full scope for exercising their own judgment. — In one place, the Archbishop observes; "Cities may fail, and bishops' sees with them. Stars have their vicissitudes, and may rise and set again. Candlesticks are moveable utensils, and may be carried from room to room. But *κατα πολιν* is the standing rule and fails not; a city and a bishop generally adequate to one another." So in another place, chusing for his text, "*Under the shadow of thy wings will I take my*

* "Judgment of whole Kingdoms and Nations concerning the Right, Power, and Preogative of Kings." (P. 49.) Lond. 1710. A tract attributed to Lord Somers.

R. 4 "refuge."

refuge," after having expatiated for some time on the word *shadow*, he proceeds thus :

' Whenever the sun of persecution, or other calamity ariseth upon us with burning heat, God can exempt whom he thinks good, and send them times of refreshing from the presence of the Lord : so that, while the world is all on fire about them, they journey through that torrid zone, with their mighty parasol, or umbrella over their heads, and are all the while in the shade.

' And yet every shade is not a safe protection. *Umbra aut nutrix, aut noverca est*, saith Pliny : and all the naturalists tell us, that the shadow of some trees is unwholesome ; of others deadly. Aye, there is a shadow of death too in Scripture language ; and you have heard of the shades of hell itself. And therefore, to distinguish this benign and saving protection from those black and dismal shades, here is yet a further and a higher emphasis.

' It is, in the third place, *umbra alarum*, a shadow of wings : an expression borrowed from birds and fowls, that brood, and foster their young ones under them. The wing of the dam is both the midwife and the nurse ; it brings forth the chickens, and it brings them up too. So Providence is both the womb that bare us, and the paps that give us suck.' —

' Nay, but there is in Scripture language an infinite and an interminable *donec*, which never expires. He knew her not, till she brought forth ; nay, he never knew her. In spite of Helvidius, *αἰραφθίρος*, (as the Greek church style her,) a virgin before, and in, and after the birth of our Lord, and for ever. Aye, that's the virgin's soul indeed, that keeps ever close to her heavenly spouse : not only runs under his wings for shelter, when calamities affright her, saying, Spread thy skirt over me, and then strays away again, as soon as ever the flattering calm, and sunshine of prosperity tempts her abroad. As our Lord hath given us an everlasting *donec* : Lo I am with you, saith he, till the end of the world : (not that he will leave us then, but take us yet nigher unto himself, and so we shall ever be with the Lord, as the Apostle speaks :) so must we also have one for him of the same latitude and extension.'

Dr. D'Oyly has annexed to his second volume a *Life of Wharton*, the Archbishop's chaplain, written by himself, and, as to many passages which it contains, we must say, very properly composed in Latin. The ardent and strange vehemence of Wharton in early youth reminds us of the character of Cardan, as described by himself. One passage, relating to the Jesuit Matthews, we doubt whether it was wise to publish even in a dead language ; and indeed we should consider it as inexcusable, if it did not tend to throw some light on the characters of the favourite priests who acquired such an unfortunate ascendancy over the mind of James II.

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The sources from which Dr. D'Oyly has drawn his materials are MSS. in the library at Lambeth, in the British Museum, in the Bodleian library, and in the possession of several individuals.

ART. III. *Mr. Gray on the Happiness of States.*

ART. IV. *Fair Prices for Ever!*

[*Art. concluded from p. 26., Number for September.*]

HAVING already reported the part of Mr. G.'s book which relates to the principles of the productive system, and the application of those principles to our financial situation, we are now to enter on a different part of his doctrines; viz. that which regards the laws of Money and Exchange, and Population.

Currency and Exchange. — This question, intricate in itself and certainly far from attractive, happens at the present moment to possess considerable interest, both from recent discussions in parliament and from the probability of some modification taking place in the existing law. The act of 1819, commonly called Mr. Peel's Act, has brought back our money-system to its old principles, and declares that the Bank is bound to furnish on demand gold at a fixed price, viz. 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce, whether the price of gold in the market be above or below that rate. The bank of France, on the other hand, has the option of paying its notes either in gold or silver; an option demanded by Mr. Baring for the Bank of England in more than one of his speeches during the last session, and which in the publication before us is urged in strong terms by Mr. Gray. Is there, he asks, any permanent reason, any argument founded on the intrinsic value of the two metals, for fixing the precise sum of 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* in silver for an ounce of gold? or was not this price chosen from the accidental circumstance of its being the market-price in 1717, the year in which the regulation in question was made? In vain will government attempt to give gold a permanent or steady value relatively to silver, since it is liable to frequent fluctuations from a number of temporary causes, such as an extra demand for silver for the China market; and also from a cause of a more permanent nature, viz. a disproportion in the relative amount of gold and silver extracted from the mines. During the last and the present age, owing to the increased productiveness of the silver mines of Mexico, the supply of silver compared with that of gold has been greater than formerly, and the consequence has been a fall

a fall in the relative value of silver. This is apparent in the altered state of the exchange between London and Paris; in which, silver being the standard of France and gold the standard of England, the *par*, instead of being 25 francs for a guinea as before the Revolution, is fully 26½ francs. Consequently, adds Mr. G., there is no fixed natural *par* between two countries which have different metallic standards; and all that can be done, either by government or by merchants, is to agree on an artificial *par* or basis of calculation, leaving it to the course of mercantile transactions to carry the real exchange above or below this *par*. Such, in his opinion, ought to have been the language of the Bullion-Committee in 1810, and of the Bank-Committee in 1819; and such ought at present to be the course of our legislature in the final regulation of our currency. — Of the resumption of cash-payments, as far as such resumption tends to give stability and regularity to our bank-paper, Mr. G. seems cordially to approve: but to an extensive use of coin, or any substitution of it for paper, (except in payments below twenty shillings,) he is as decidedly adverse. Were, however, a different opinion to prevail, and were gold to be substituted extensively for bank-notes, he recommends that the issue of it should take place, not in guineas or sovereigns, but in pieces of an even weight; such as ounces, half-ounces, and quarter-ounces, in order that they may be exchangeable for silver by a very easy computation. If to this regulation were added a right on the part of the Bank to pay their notes in gold or silver at their option, our circulating medium would rest on a basis equitable to all parties, and calculated to prevent those fluctuations which for a century past have at one time sent gold out of the country, and at another brought it into circulation in quantities. These alternations of rise and fall seem all to have arisen from the obligation on the Bank to pay at a fixed value, 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.*: but, on the plan recommended by Mr. G., all speculations on the relative prices of metals would cease, and gold coin would be drawn out in small quantities only, to meet the personal wants of merchants and travellers, and occasionally by gold-workers.

Mr. Gray approves greatly of the clause in the act of 1819 which permits the free export of our coin; a point on which, as in the superiority of bank-notes to coin for large payments, he has our cordial assent. We give this concurrence in like manner to his arguments on a much more disputed topic; we mean the charge of over-issue during the war, which is brought by the bullionists against both the Bank of England and our country-banks. How, he asks, could either

either the Bank of England or our country-banks have it in their power to surcharge the home-circulation to any great extent, since their notes could at any time be returned on them, or paid into the Treasury; the latter forming an absorbent of one or two millions per week? The cause of the prevalent error on this head is a mistake of currency for capital. A banking-house agreeing to lend a specific sum makes the advance through the medium of its notes, but without any power of keeping them in circulation: moreover, bank-notes cost a daily interest to the holders, who will, we may be assured, return them as soon as they are enabled to relieve themselves from the burden. Currency, therefore, as long as it is voluntary, is in no danger of excess or overcharge; and, could our men of business, amid their difficulties for money, allow themselves to think on these topics impartially, they would find it equally free from the danger of deficiency. The history of the age, eventful in financial as well as in military transactions, shews that, under any circumstances, even under those of the reign of terror in France, currency finds the means of providing for itself.

It is incumbent, however, on us to state the qualifications with which we receive the author's opinion on the much disputed question of the value of our bank-notes in the latter years of the war. The existence of depreciation is admitted by Mr. G. only in the case of forced paper, such as the *assignats* of France, or the non-convertible currency of the Russian, Austrian, or Swedish governments: but, in a currency like ours, he denies both the existence and the possibility of depreciation. His arguments on this head, adduced in various parts of the "*Happiness of States*," (pp. 218. 280. 615. 670.) are in our view satisfactory as they regard home circulation, but any thing rather than valid in their relation to foreign exchanges. The awkward quality of non-convertibility was evidently attached to our bank-notes as far as the Continent was concerned; and, whenever circumstances led to a great increase of our continental charges, — when, as in 1808 and 1809, our expenditure in Spain increased, — and when, as in 1810, to that expenditure was added a heavy demand of coin for the purchase of corn, — the result was a depreciation of our paper for continental purposes, a rise of the exchange, and an enhancement of those articles (particularly corn), the price of which was regulated by the rate of the foreign market. Can Mr. G. have forgotten that guineas were then currently bought up for 25s. or 26s.; that government itself paid equally high prices for foreign coin and bullion; and that, had this anomaly been of much longer continuance, the result would have been a regular

lar and avowed difference in the price of shop-goods when sold for bank-notes and when sold for cash? Specie, though of only equal value with notes for the purchase of hardware, cottons, or other home-made articles, was, and would during the war have continued to be, of greater value in the purchase of all imported goods, and especially corn.

Population. — From the abstruse question of money and exchange, we now pass to one which, with less intricacy in itself, has the merit of present interest, the result of our late *Census* being of a nature to engage the serious attention of the statistical inquirer. — In a premature stage of society, the *ratio* of the increase of numbers is evidently very slow; for, notwithstanding the boundless command of territory, nothing can be more adverse to such increase than the habits of the hunter-state. The manner in which this fact is exemplified among the North American Indians suggests the conclusion that, in the early peopled regions of Asia, the augmentation of numbers, even with the aid of a fine climate, could hardly have been large until the adoption of pastoral habits. Such habits opened a more favourable prospect; though far inferior to the agricultural state, in which increase of subsistence concurs so strongly with health of occupation to augment our numbers. The last stage in the progress of population may be termed the mercantile; the age in which a large proportion of the inhabitants of a country are assembled in sea-ports, and manufacturing towns. In a conjectural table inserted in his lately published work (p. 636.), Mr. G. thus computes the proportions of the national income earned by each class in 1818, a year of peace, and of considerable activity in agriculture, manufactures, and trade.

	Computed Amount.	Proportion to the whole National Income.
Agriculturists, and all engaged in the supply of subsistence, £84,000,000		30 per cent.
Manufacturers, and all persons occupied in making clothing and hardware, whether for home-consumption or for ex- portation, - - -	39,000,000	14
Mechanics, masons, and all people supplying houses and furniture, - - -	39,000,000	14
The army, the navy, the civil servants of government, the annuitants drawing an income		
Carry forward, £162,000,000		58

from

	Computed Amount.	Proportion to the whole National Income.
Brought forward,	£162,000,000	58 per cent.
from our dividends; all, in short, who are paid through the medium of taxes,	62,000,000	22
The professional classes, viz. lawyers, clergy, medical men, artists, and teachers; — to whom is added a very numerous though not an affluent class, — that of domestic servants,	48,000,000	17
The classes receiving parish sup- port and other charitable aid,	8,000,000	3
Total,	£280,000,000	100 per cent.

In giving this table, Mr. Gray makes several observations on the characteristics of the great divisions of society. Agriculturists form, even in our commercial country, the most numerous and most healthy, perhaps also the most moral class. Next come mechanics and artisans; who bear a considerable resemblance to the former in the important points of number, health, and morals. It is only in the last century that manufacturers have so separated their employment from that of agriculture and mechanical labour in general, as to become a distinct class: they are proportionally more numerous in this than in any other country, and, if we reckon the mercantile class with them, their wealth is very considerable: but unfortunately the fluctuations of wages, and the practice of accumulating large bodies of them in collective establishments, place them, generally speaking, on an inferior footing with regard to health and temperance. Passing from these classes to the public service, we find in the army and navy a mode of life which, whatever may be its utility in a political sense, is ill adapted to marriage; and which, from change of climate and other exposures, is liable to great vicissitudes of health. The civil servants of government are very differently circumstanced, and may be said to bear some resemblance, as far as their station in society is concerned, to professional men; lawyers, clergy, the medical line, or the higher teachers in our public seminaries. Each of these classes is in the receipt of a genteel income; and though in numbers they are far inferior to those who rank lower in the scale, this inequality becomes progressively less, it being the characteristic of an improving community to augment the proportion borne by professional men, particularly teachers and artists.

The proportion of a very different class, domestic servants, also increases with the wealth, or, in other words, with the general population of a country. In the eye of a statistical observer, like Mr. Gray, they form a class in general healthy and moral, but occupying a situation which seldom admits of marriage, and is therefore not conducive to increase of population. As to paupers, their numbers ought not to be literally reckoned by the parish-returns, since we may fairly leave out of the question such a proportion of the payments as forms an equivalent to inadequacy of wages.

Correspondence between Increase of Population and Increase of individual Wealth.— This topic is at all times interesting, but doubly important when, amid the multiplied sufferings attendant on our transition from war to peace, we find that in one respect at least (increase of numbers) our situation bears what Mr. G. deems an unequivocal symptom of future prosperity. According to him, such increase implies augmentation of wealth not merely in a national or collective sense, but among individuals; exemplifying one of the fundamental principles of his system, that ‘the more varied the classes, the more they conduce to the welfare of each other.’ The inquirer, who is eager for proof on a topic which regards us so nearly, sees at first with a degree of doubt that the reasoning of Mr. G. on this head (Letter to Sir J. Sinclair, pp. 25, 26, 27.) is not so clear and direct as it might be wished; resting only on such arguments as the more minute division of employment in towns, the greater abundance of work which they afford, and the possibility of finding occupations there for individuals of every variety of character and capacity. Fortunately, however, these arguments are supported by the evidence of history, by a reference to every advanced community, such as Holland or England, and in short by an attentive examination of any district of dense population. In this respect the northern departments of France form a contrast to the more thinly peopled provinces of the south; and a farther illustration of the fact is afforded by the south of Italy, by Spain, and by Hungary, kingdoms still less inhabited than the south of France. In each of these countries, the wealth of individuals is greater or less in proportion to the density or the thinness of the population: thus, in a statistical return, for France, the property of 1000 persons in the northern departments would be found considerably greater than that of a similar number in the south. The comparison might be applied to other states; and the general result would be that, wherever population is checked, whether by natural causes, (as in the mountains of Swisserland or Scotland,) or by artificial causes, (as the bad government of the Turks and

Moors,) the less is the division of employment, and the smaller consequently are the earnings of the labourer.

If we extend our observation in another direction, and take into our view the districts whether in England or the Netherlands which are connected by water-communication, we shall invariably trace the fortunate results which mark a density of population; because, whether thickly inhabited or not, ease of intercourse produces, in a politico-economical sense, the same effects with vicinity of position. The access to markets is thus facilitated, and the subdivision of employment rendered practicable; in short, the advantages of a capital or a large city are by these means combined with the health and cheapness of a town of moderate size.

What a prospect of eventual increase is thus opened to Great Britain and to Ireland; intersected as both are by so many means of communication, and possessed of so extensive a range of coast! What but the want of frequent channels of this kind is the grand obstruction to the diffusion of wealth in countries like France, Germany, and Spain; countries certainly not inferior to ours in soil or climate, but which present, as we perceive on the first inspection of the map, tracts of great extent that are in a manner closed to water-communication. A time, however, will come when France, Germany, and other parts of the Continent will extend their canals and augment their population; and exactly in proportion as these improvements take place, will be the benefit of their commercial intercourse to themselves, to us, and to other states with which they may be connected.

In comparing the effects of agriculture on the increase of our numbers with those of manufactures and trade, Mr. Gray gives a decided preference to the former, because trade (at least trade with tropical climates) involves a loss of lives, and manufactures frequently cause injury to health from crowded assemblages and sedentary occupations. We cannot, however, avoid thinking that he would have qualified these conclusions, had he lived in an agricultural country like France, and marked how slowly population increases amid the penury, the ignorance, and the un-enterprising habits of the tenants of the soil. Contrasting these with the activity of towns, the diffusion of comfort, and the ready access to medical aid in a dense population; above all, comparing the rapidity of increase in our country with the slow progress of our continental neighbours; he would have been disposed to pardon several of the irregularities of the manufacturing state, engendered as they are, not by irremediable defects, but by fluctuation in wages, and in many cases by the unhealthy

unhealthy atmosphere of antiquated and ill-planned structures. Drawbacks such as these may be greatly lessened by the improvement of our towns, and by that distribution of population, which water-communication naturally leads; — we mean, appropriating a particular town to a particular manufacture, instead of accumulating, as is usual and in fact, necessary on the Continent, a variety of manufactures in a capital. No part of France, Germany, or the Netherlands, exhibits subdivisions of employment to be compared to those which characterize Birmingham, Sheffield, and Leeds: while in continental cities a variety of distinct (we might almost say incongruous) manufactures are prosecuted on the same spot: — Paris, for instance, though the most expensive residence in France for a workman, being the seat not only of jewellers, cabinet-makers, and gilders, but of very different classes, such as silk and cotton weavers.

Population is conducive to increase of employment in many points in which, at first, we should not be inclined to suppose it to exert such an influence. Thus, with regard to the size of farms, the common notion of small farms being conducive to increase of numbers is so far from correct, that in these petty occupancies it is not practicable to do justice to the productive powers of the soil; while farms of larger size, those which vary from 300 to 500 acres, have many advantages for profitable cultivation. They admit of the application of machinery and the employment of capital; and, while the number of persons supported on the spot is (as we find from the returns made of the population of counties so highly cultivated as Norfolk and East Lothian) greater than it was in the age of small farms, the quantity of subsistence disposable for the market is augmented beyond comparison. Agricultural improvements, according to Mr. G., are caused almost entirely by increasing numbers; but, whether such be the case or not, we have no hesitation in admitting his assertion (p. 651.) that, whenever a village or town is observed to increase its buildings, we may safely take for granted that it is in a thriving state. From all these considerations, he makes the inference that the maxim of the politician ought to be ‘to take care of population, as population will take care of subsistence, and of every other species of supply.’ Certain it is that the principles of population, as explained by him, and as confirmed by the evidence of history, are calculated to lay the axe to the root of many favourite theories; — such, for instance, as the notion that states, even when well governed, must calculate on eventual decay; and the dread, still so general among us, that in a future war with a great continental power, particularly France, this

this country might be assailable by invasion. To be satisfied that our fears are groundless, we have merely to calculate how largely we have gained on the continental powers during the last century. With them, the rate of increase has not in that time been greater than in the proportion of 130, or at the utmost 140, to 100: while with us it has been fully as 200 to 100; a rate which, if continued, (and this seems highly probable,) will in the next generation bring Great Britain and Ireland on a *par* in point of numbers with the French or the Austrian dominions.

After this ample exposition of the doctrines of Mr. G., it is time to proceed to the less pleasant part of our task, and to put on record our objections; which, notwithstanding the amendments in his later publications, are still far from inconsiderable. We still recognize in him a tone of confidence, and a disposition to urge a point boldly and absolutely, instead of drawing with a careful hand a line of distinction, and admitting the qualifications which are almost always necessary before an assent can be given to a sweeping conclusion. In one passage (p. 638.), he allows that, in the case of an individual who, like the stock-jobbers, makes a profit by a loss on the part of his neighbour, the result affords no advantage to society, and is merely a transfer of property. Encouraged by this admission, we looked for something not altogether equivalent but nearly so with respect to the sinecurist and unemployed annuitant; who expend, it is true, their income for the benefit of society, but who, as to acquisition, are mere intermediaries: doing nothing personally to increase it, nothing which, according to Mr. G.'s own doctrine, can be considered as a service to the community, or made the basis of a charge against any of its members. We found, however, nothing applicable to their case, unless it be the general admission that certain members of society are much inferior in the degree of production to others. This observation brings us to the case of the military and civil servants of government; who have, says Mr. Gray, the same title as others to be ranked among the productive members of society. We are not inclined to dispute this point when the admission of it is accompanied by the necessary qualifications; viz. that the number of the servants of government is not subjected to the test of chargeability which applies to other lines; that society does not exercise, in the restriction of their number, the same power as in the case of professional men; and that a ruler like Bonaparte or Frederic II. of Prussia finds no difficulty in carrying their numbers to an extreme. If we apply these

these considerations to the military establishment of this country, we shall find that a force of between 50 and 60,000 men may be no more than are requisite for the preservation of order, the collection of the revenue, and security from hostile attack: while an additional 20,000 may come under the description of a force kept up for parade, for patronage, or for taking a busy part in foreign politics. All, we allow, expend their pay and promote re-production; stimulating the labours of the agriculturist, the merchant, and the manufacturer: but is there, we may ask, no difference, as far as our national income is concerned, between the smaller and the larger number? May not the former be said to represent a sacrifice necessary to the undisturbed movement of the national machine; an extension or reduction of which would probably involve some new and perhaps considerable charge; while in the latter case the public would incur an unnecessary burden, paying for the support of 20,000 men who would otherwise maintain themselves, and placing itself consequently on a footing of disadvantage compared with more economical neighbours? Here in our opinion lies the great error of Mr. G.: his works contain no admission of injury from extravagant expenditure; no confession that the great activity of our productive industry during the war was founded on borrowed money; nor any acknowledgement that activity excited by burdening posterity involves a result very different from that which arises from natural causes; viz. from the progressive growth of capital and increase of population.

In another material point, the fluctuations in the price of commodities, we are at variance with Mr. Gray, who appears to make no distinction between a nominal and a real rise; considering (if we understand him rightly) the high prices during the war as representing a corresponding addition to the national wealth, and the fall since the peace a correspondent reduction of such wealth. We, on the other hand, regard such rise and fall as in a great measure nominal; the higher wages and salaries during war being neutralized by the inferior value of the money in the purchase of commodities, and *vice versa* in peace.—It is in the same tone of confident calculation that we are told in the concluding part of the work (p. 659.), that our national debt is ‘a copious source of wealth, and productive of nearly 15 per cent. of the whole national income.’ Admitting as we do that 15 per cent. of the national income is at present derived from the funds, it is somewhat unfair to make this allegation without a retrospect to its injurious accompaniments; and particularly to its necessitating a load of taxation which, notwithstanding the
opinion

opinion of Mr. G. and of the writers of the *Agricultural Report*, (p. 22.) we must persist in viewing as considerably greater in proportion to our means than that of our continental neighbours. The result of this our unfortunate pre-eminence in fiscal burdens is the emigration of antitaxants; all of whom, to adopt Mr. Gray's phrase, now set as buyers in other countries, stimulating the reproductive industry of French and Belgians by an income extracted from this kingdom.

We come, lastly, again to the subject of Population; in treating which we are disposed to dwell with satisfaction on the doctrines of this author, both as accordant with our own ideas and as offering a cheering prospect in the midst of our national embarrassments. Yet here also we regret that, in his ardour for favourable inferences, he has not adverted to a case which, though not of frequent occurrence, applies to an interesting portion of the empire; we mean a case like that of Ireland or Brittany; in which, from extreme poverty, distance from towns, and inability to give to youth the education necessary for a mechanical business, the increase of numbers is by no means attended with an adequate increase of public wealth. In those unfortunate regions, society is in some degree in its primitive stage; employment is not subdivided; and the cottagers are obliged to supply their own wants, and to pass a life equally unproductive of comfort to themselves and of benefit to the society. Another consideration, and one that is applicable to the most improved countries, is that an increase of numbers, though highly satisfactory in its ultimate effect, does not bring with it a speedy cure to a disordered state of productive industry, such as exists among us at present. If we take for example the case of our agriculturists, and assume that our low prices of corn are the result of an excess of home-growth; were the consumers alone to increase, the remedy would not be distant, but the producers augment their numbers in nearly the same proportion: so that a return to a suitable rate of prices, — that rate which brings back to the grower his disbursement, with an adequate profit, — can take place only when from emigration, the extension of home-manufacture, or some other cause distinct from increase of population, a new employment shall be afforded to a proportion of our agriculturists.

Passing, in the next place, from the substance to the composition of Mr. Gray's works, we are to remark that the pamphlet intitled 'Fair Prices' discovers considerable skill in addressing a humble class of readers, and contains less absolute assertion and less unqualified allegation than his original

publication. The latter (we mean on the "Happiness of States") stands greatly in need of revision, and even of new-modelling. To publish in the quarto form a work on such a subject is a singular instance of the miscalculation of either the author or the bookseller. In the event of its coming to a new edition, the calculations with regard to income should be made not from the early years of the property-tax, but from the returns of 1814 and 1815; which, however superior in amount to those that could be made at present, are intitled to attention as much more impartial and correct than those of 1800. In like manner, as to population, the *Census* of the present year will supply a ground of reasoning more accurate and more explicit than those of 1801 and 1811. The volume before us also might be greatly abridged by a general condensation of the arguments, and by passing over topics which seem no longer to require proof. Thus, in the population-question between Mr. Gray and Mr. Malthus, the evidence of recent facts is so strongly in favour of the former, and the subject is so fully discussed in the volume appropriated to it by Dr. Purves, that it seems quite unnecessary to treat it at length in a second edition of the "Happiness of States."

Weighty as are in some respects the objections which we have felt it our duty to make, we close these productions of Mr. Gray's pen with a strong impression of their value; and in the belief that most of his doctrines are likely to receive the assent of the practical man and the political economist, whenever they shall be promulgated in a clear and popular style, divested of a tendency to extremes, and accompanied by such qualifications as are suggested by an impartial study of statistical facts.

ART. V. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Vittorio Alfieri.*
12mo. pp. 220. 5s. 6d. Boards. Baldwyns. 1821.

WE have but little occasion to enter now on any general discussion of the genius and character of that extraordinary character, Vittorio Alfieri, because we can refer our readers to a very copious and interesting review of his own memoirs, in our *lxiiid* volume, N. S. p. 397. It will here be nearly sufficient, therefore, for us to consider the merits of the publication now on our table; which, we imagine, will be found to consist in a judicious selection of the most pleasing and prominent features of the strange and terrible picture of himself which Alfieri sketched with his own hand, when his passions had at last worked themselves into a calm that admitted of steadiness of hand and purpose to pursue so wild

wild and improbable a story. It is indeed no common portrait of life; resembling rather the daring and superhuman touches that mark the historic characters and the bandits of Salvator Rosa and his brethren, than the quiet and beautiful imaginations or the divine sweetness of countenance which belong to a Raffael, a Rembrandt, or a Titian.

The soul of Alfieri was composed of an union of the most violent yet contradictory passions; and energies, both good and evil, seem to have been indifferently directed to the most passionate attainment of objects either low or lofty, most laudable or most base. He seems frequently to have engaged in violent pursuits for the mere pleasure which they afforded; without any reference to their end; and, as soon as he had acquired the vicious reputation of a debauchee and a thorough "man of the world," he despised and disowned the title; burning for fame, as he declares, more than he had ever done for passion. When he had become the most skilful of jockies, and had driven his own servants in the best style to and from our theatres, he turned gentleman, and rode with a retinue at prodigious speed through Europe, without seeing any thing. Thus he took a winter's excursion to St. Petersburg, for the express purpose of beholding the celebrated Empress Catherine; and, on arriving, he never troubled himself to go to court! He wrote several tragedies in order that he might have exactly the same number of them and of horses; ~~whom~~ he seems always to have respected as highly as Gulliver himself. In fact, he walked with them over the Alps, attending on them most carefully, and having several Yahoos allotted to every Houyhnhnm as his servants. Finally, after a fervent admiration of "the flesh and blood charms" of the different beauties of nearly every nation, he altogether left them for the very unsubstantial attractions of those platonic ladies, the Muses. An enthusiastic lover of freedom, he hated the Dutch and French excessively, and wrote *Anti-gallicans* with much ability. He always, however, admired the English, and every where spoke highly of them.

Alfieri having once insulted his Italian servant, by felling him to the earth with a heavy silver-candlestick for hurting a hair of his head, he slept at night with his bed-room door open, that the servant, Elias, might have an opportunity of revenging himself if he chose; and indeed telling the said Elias that he had better do so, as he (Alfieri) was sure that he had very richly deserved it. From his earliest age, and during his whole life, he seems to have preserved the same resolute and *invariable inconsistency*, — the same wilful indulgence of opposite feelings, — and the same obstinate attainment

of superiority, if not excellence, in every study which he pursued. In the nursery, in the academy, in the drawing-room, and the closet, — from the opening to the close of his career, — the vehemence of his temper, and the keen, tumultuous, and ungovernable nature of his feelings, never deserted him. He may be supposed hardly ever to have slept, his restless spirit being always in the state that Shakspeare ascribes to impending treason ;

“ The genius and the mortal instruments
Are then in motion ; and the state of man
Like to a little kingdom suffers then
The nature of an insurrection ;”

and it must not be presumed that the struggle within him was often of easy decision, for he must sometimes have been literally torn with anarchy of mind. Nor was his literary character of a less mixed and fiery complexion. Like his personal and social qualities, it manifests the same violence, impetuous daring, abruptness, and passion, and is of the same opposite and irreconcilable nature. Images of terror, of beauty, and of pity, though with few of the flowers of poetry, invest the action of his dramas in a shroud of grief, or in wreaths of love and hope, girt around with precipices of fear. His stories have the impressiveness, the transitions, and the surprise, but none of the repose of real life. He admits no trifling, and nothing even of the finer charms of poetry. The unhappy beings tell their terrible or piteous tale, and disappear ; being allowed no time even for explanation, certainly not for idle declamation and comparisons, as in the florid taste of the French, the verbose sentiment of the German, and the studied conceits of the Spanish drama. The terseness and strength of his dialogue, therefore, not unfrequently render him somewhat harsh and obscure ; though even his faults, like his excellences, are altogether of a lofty kind. He is perhaps a great poet only to minds like his own, of a proud and uncommon stamp. He commands rather than solicits the interest of his readers, and is the favourite of stern and passionate, not of gentle and imaginative spirits ; so that the fascination of such a name, like a serpent's gaze, is calculated to mislead and to destroy, instead of becoming a beacon and a support to humanity. Its example is not calculated for good : it incites rather than deters by its extravagance ; and even a critic cannot resist the temptation of giving way to it, while glancing at an abstract of the life.

Such an abstract is before us, and we have little more to say of it, but that little is in its praise : since it brings the most
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amusing and surprizing incidents of his personal and literary life, and anecdotes of his character, into a small compass; rescuing the most important and agreeable portions from the confused, repulsive, and over-wrought mass under which they lay buried. Its best claims, however, attach on the gratitude of the general reader, for sparing that time and patience which are so often sacrificed to the precise and voluminous tediousness of biographical productions. The abridgment, also, is effected in an agreeable and lively manner, with much ease and simplicity of style, and with more spirit and earnestness of feeling than we find in the original: which, though striking and impressve, as we before remarked, from the nature of the subject and the facts related, has very few attractions in its style and execution. — Altogether, we think that the present little volume is a welcome addition to the lovers of memoir-reading, as well as of Italian literature and of Alfieri; though we cannot agree with the author in his advertisement 'that it will be found to possess *all* the information, without the diffuseness, of the original work.'

ART. VI. *G. Gelb's Patent, Analytical, and Grammatical System of teaching the Science of the Composition of Music, in all its Branches; and the Practice of the Piano-forte, by the Rules of Construction, depending on the Principles of Composition; made clear and simple to juvenile Capacities, with a View to render the Acquirement of a profound Knowledge of Music easy, sure, and speedy to all Learners.* Folio. Seven Numbers. Printed at New York.

NOTWITHSTANDING all the circumstances which frequently give to music a trifling character, and make it appear beneath the regard of sensible men, still the subject involves the dignity of a science, and an interesting relation to our moral and religious sentiments. When, indeed, we recollect the usual attainments in music of a boarding-school young lady, the whims of teaching professors, and the vapid stuff of many of our composers, we can feel but little respect for a degraded art and an abused science; and we might not only wish that less time and attention were devoted to it, but almost question the propriety of making it any part of juvenile education. We cannot, however, deny its important power and influence in connection with national character, public amusement, and private recreation; nor can we forget that such men have lived as Handel, Corelli, Haydn, and Mozart; that many professors of the present day are capable of the purest and best exercise of

their art; and that our musical ideas and feelings are associated with some of the soul's most delightful and hallowed emotions. We must, therefore, admit that the subject will always merit grave consideration; and that the public may be congratulated on any improvement which adds interest to musical science, which refines our pleasure in it, or which extends the sphere of its beneficial power.

We do not stay now to inquire how far the *novelties* of the present day, with respect to the theory or the practice of music, have favoured these objects, but shall proceed to examine the work before us; and to ascertain in what degree Mr. Geib has elucidated this fashionable science, or facilitated its practical attainment. As an American production, his system challenges somewhat more than ordinary interest; and the recollection of our late satisfaction in several instances of American authorship (see particularly our account of Geoffrey Crayon's "Sketch Book," Rev. for Oct. 1820,) disposes us to sit down to the task with complacent good humour.

The author's *Preface* is a "Curiosity of Literature," and we must bring our readers acquainted with it. As it is elaborate, and obviously prized by the writer, if we indulge a smile over it, we assure him that it will be a good natured one. We learn from the first paragraph that he challenges the attention of the public to a 'new system' of instruction, and speaks of 'extensive and liberal patronage.' He then observes: 'It is in my opinion the duty of all who direct the public attention to a new road to any well known place, to shew, in a concise manner, the distance and labour that can be saved; and to point out the defects of the old, and the superior advantages of the new; and by delineating the country anterior and posterior to the change which can be effected, exhibit at one view all its claims to public support.' The comparison in this sentence we can readily suppose to be a *national* or *local* suggestion. A new road, a short road, and a good road, will for some time to come be an object of special interest and importance on the American continent. The felicity of the comparison therefore is seen at a glance.

'As the knowledge of the grammar (continues Mr. G.) and practice of literature is much more generally understood than music, I hope to give my readers a correct idea of the latter, by a few remarks on the former. To understand a language thoroughly, it is necessary to have such principles stored in the mind, which will always secure it against error: a knowledge of the elementary sounds of the alphabet, the formation of words, their dependencies on one another, syntax and belles lettres, is indispensable. And,

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to become a good player on the piano-forte, it is necessary to understand all the elementary principles of music, and how to analyze all its branches, to be capacitated to apply the rules of fingering; and by a knowledge of composition acquire a judgment and cultivate a taste; thus skilled, the arcana of music and the sources from which flow all the merits of the greatest composers, will be revealed, and the mind charmed with a stream of constant interest and variety of information — clear though deep.

Had the author observed, in more homely phrase, that, in order to become a good player on the piano-forte, it is necessary to "*know all about it*," his sentences would have expressed still more than their present wordy fulness and finery have conveyed, while they would have read less alarmingly to tyros and novices. He then proceeds to censure the 'old system,' and asserts that nothing but imperfection can result from it:

'In my own opinion, (he adds,) a scholar taught by the old system, is like a mariner on a vast ocean, without compass, or even a glimmer of hope from a twinkling propitious star to guide him over the solitary deep — his only monitor too often tradition's tale from unskilful steersman; drifted by every current, wafted by every wind, accident may decide his fate, and strand him, after a long and troubled voyage amid hidden dangers, on a barbarous shore, where the sun of his hope sets — to rise no more.'

What can be the mighty mischief (our readers may ask) thus awfully suggested? *Risum teneatis*? The scholar, after long *fagging* on the old plan, may possibly not have 'much command of finger,' and be able to execute 'only a few fashionable pieces very imperfectly.' This is indeed outrageous. It is impossible to fix our attention to the keys of a piano-forte, with the mind possessed of an idea so exquisitely imaginative and affecting as that which is here conveyed; though certainly the comparison would have been in better keeping, if the writer had been teaching some improved plan of setting the "spherical chimes" and composing the grand "Harmonies of Nature."

We have often regretted the want of a competent portion of literature in our musical professors, that they might speak and write on the subject of their calling in a way that should be creditable to themselves and their profession. We know well that there are some educated men among them, and we have often felt the powerful charm of musical excellence in conjunction with a cultivated mind:—we have seen it much enhanced by poetic taste and purity of moral sentiment, and heightened most of all by a reverence of Him who is the source

source of all harmony. With regard to Mr. Geib, it must certainly be acknowledged that he is a teacher of great pretension. He professes, by his system,

‘ To give scholars that knowledge of music which will capacitate them to study the concertos of the greatest masters ; to know how to indite and compose music ; play extempore ; prelude with propriety ; and, to store their minds with the most beautiful figures of music selected by analysis from the works of Beethoven, Cramer, Haydn, Handel, Mozart, Dussek, Pleyel, &c., without the study of a lifetime ; which is usually devoted to acquiring but too generally a superficial knowledge only of the subject. After studying music many years, I think myself authorized to state, that the principles of it are few and simple. And that most writers have viewed the subject in the *inflated garb of technical pomp ; or have seen it through the medium of hypothesis, to themselves clear, though changeable as the polyedrous crystal ; where every object, glowing with the lustre of the bow in endless numbers, dazzles the judgment and excludes the direct and steady light of reason.*’

After this splendid passage, we could not but smile at the following remark : ‘ the reader will be able to see by this work, how I have simplified the immutable laws of music, to render them intelligible to a child ;’ and our readers, we believe, will expect any thing rather than plainness and simplicity from Mr. Geib. If any persons have imagined that our trans-Atlantic brethren were cold, calculating, and selfish, more secure than other men from the weakness of sentiment and the witchery of imagination, — and if Geoffrey Crayon, gentleman, failed to convince them of their error, — Mr. Geib will not suffer them to retain it ; for they must now see that the imagination of man in America may be as wild as its wildernesses and lawless as its savages.

In illustrating the position that musical excellence may be taught and acquired independently of any peculiar gift of nature, Mr. G. informs us ;

‘ An actor, without a mechanical acquaintance with oratorical rules, of fine feelings, whose heart is enlisted in every character he plays, although he may sometimes touch the heart, can never divest his performance of ranting. A man of a good heart, strong mind, purity of morals, with a liberal education, possessing a beautiful form and countenance, and dignified manners, is qualified, no doubt, to act the greatest character that man is designed for ; but are we to be pleased only when we meet with perfections ? No — because all polished substances will gratify contemplation, and because the various textures of genius, polished with education, emblazoning the many virtues of mankind, are all bright — though not first — yet great.’

We

We are disposed to question the correctness of the following observation : ' It is as possible to acquire a good ear for music, as a taste for reading. I have known many instances of persons making first rate tuners, who could not arrange the tones of their voice to any tune when they began to learn.' By ' a good ear for music,' Mr. G. no doubt means a *correct* ear, enabling a person to sing or play in tune, or to know when others do; and we think that, where such an ear is denied by nature, it is not to be acquired. The question, perhaps, involves a physiological inquiry; and we shall here only remark that our *experience* has been uniformly against the position that an originally bad ear may be corrected. We know several individuals of great taste and talent in music, who for thirty years have been in the habit of singing to the piano-forte, and who now sing as much out of tune as they originally did, in consequence of a defect in the organ of hearing. That persons should ' make first-rate tuners who could not arrange the tones of their voice to any tune when they began to learn,' is not marvellous; for in every such instance the ear is, without question, good by *nature*, but the voice will not obey the ear for the most obvious reason, the want of *practice*; which alone can give facility and correctness to its modulations.

Much more occurs in the author's preface, which is equally radiant with splendid imagery, and equally incongruous in its jumbled metaphors. The subsequent remark, however, is plainly and obviously true, and too important to be omitted : ' Without *opening the mouth*, a good singer never can be made. Therefore friends or parents of students cannot insist too much on a compliance with that *indispensable duty*.' — The prefatory remarks then close thus magnificently and magnanimously :

' The fool ; the supercilious pedant,' (we are not much afraid of disturbing our author's complacency,) ' who struts in borrowed garments ; knaves who indiscriminately condemn all that glitters not with their interest ; and the prejudiced, who kiss the chains of habit which fasten them to the dungeon of ignorance ; where reason's flash is excluded to save their diseased eyes from total blindness ; their opinions, black as the raven, and as odious as its voice, though obtruded on me, will pass away in the current of the winds, contemned and unanswered. All liberal criticisms to eradicate error, with a view to promote the general design of this work, which is to open to the lovers of music a short and flowery road to the enchanted scenes of Elysium ; where heavenly harmony shall banish Discordia, and Euterpe's flute shall soothe the savage breast, will be most thankfully received by the — author.'

In now entering on the analysis of this book, we wish that it were in our power to commend it more than our duty will permit; and the rather because we deprecate the suspicion of illiberality towards American literature, which is certainly rising in our estimation, and drawing to it more of our interest and attention. At the commencement, Mr. G. presents us with fifteen skeleton chapters of 'Elements;' and here he is most laudably minute and circumstantial, describing lines and spaces, and even condescending to inform us that 'the keys (of a piano-forte) are white and black, divided thus,' &c. To enumerate the heads of the respective chapters would be to enter into a dry detail, and yet give our readers no information. It appears to us that the author multiplies his definitions unnecessarily, and is singularly unfortunate in the want of clearness and simplicity: but, in justice to him, we must observe that an obscurity arises sometimes from the use of terms not adopted by musical men in our own country. At p. 16. are two drawings (but why placed there we know not), the one of a female *head*, shewing the form of the mouth in singing; (an exemplification of the '*indispensable duty*' of opening the mouth;) and the other a *hand*, which, to our judgment, shews a very good and handsome position at the keys. The author closes his chapters of 'Elements' with the following *nota bene*: 'In my schools, for the benefit of the students, the Elements are printed in large type, equal in size to the type of a theatre bill; and hung conspicuously round the room, that the students may always keep them in mind.' To this *school*, we think, Mr. G. should have confined the 'Elements.'—We have often felt inclined to ask, why such a work as the one before us is given to the public? Is it designed for pupils or masters in music? The latter, surely, must be supposed not to need it, while to the former it is almost useless without the aid of a teacher; and, if the remark might be made with respect to *other* works on the theory of music, that they have always too much obscurity for the scholar to be left to himself with them, it particularly applies to Mr. Geib's 'Patent, Analytical, and Grammatical System.' Indeed, we must think better of the prudence of masters than to suppose that they design, by their treatises on thorough bass, entirely to emancipate their scholars. In perusing Mr. G.'s book, the image of the bustling complacent pedagogue (we bar all invidious meaning) and his school-room is ever before us; and its language betrays a studied technicalism which is sometimes amusing, though oftener offensive in its seeming pedantry.

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We give a specimen of the author's manner, from p. 38. :

' The three characters of music. The first is Rhythm : the second Melody : the third Harmony. *Rhythm*, is the changes formed by the arrangement of one sound into time and accent — it can be varied by inversion or compounding. The beats of a drum is an exemplification of musical rhythm. *Melody*, is the musical effect produced by the changes among grave and acute sounds, when one sound only is heard at the same time. *Harmony*, is the changes produced by a combination of sounds, modulated according to the rules of musical grammar — it depends on rhythm, accent, time, melody, and a combination of sounds.'

An example of the kind of style and manner which frequently recur in this curious book will justify our remark, that its contents are fitter for the writer's school-room than the eye of the public. (Page 31.)

' Commit to memory chapters 4, 5, and 6. — be cross-examined in 4 and 5. (See questions and answers.) The pupil must thoroughly understand all the sharps and flats ; and all the keys they occur in. (See Transposition Scale, Table I.) Write out all the major keys, ascending and descending, one octave each, and finger them by rule (see chap. 4.) — always begin and end at the key-note. *Rule*. All the sharps, and all the keys, major or minor, which have sharps for their signatures, are found by a sequence of fifths, (see chap. 4.) thus, ' &c. &c.

Mr. G.'s chapters of ' Elements' are followed by ' General Principles to be observed in Fingering.' With an unnecessary degree of minuteness, he still furnishes some judicious remarks on this subject, and some good drawings of the *hand* to illustrate them. Then follow ' The Institutes of Construction, Analysis, and Composition,' which open in this lively and edifying manner, by what we may designate the *Allegro Staccato* style of writing :

' *Scholar*. Copy chapters 1, 2, and 3. (See Elements.) *Commit them to memory*. Write the notes. (See No. 1. Rules explained.) Write the seven letters under the notes they belong to. For letters (see chap. 2.). Study the notes by the dumb instrument, (see the plate,) then write your ideas of the notes ; thus, first line in the treble, E — first space, F — second line, G, &c. The bass after the same manner ; thus, first line G, &c. *Rule*. Every other note is a line ; and every other note is a space. *Commit all the notes to memory* : and be cross-examined in them. (See Cross-Examination in question and answer at the latter part of the work.) The right hand plays the treble, the left hand the bass, ' &c. &c.

Under this imposing head of Institutes of Construction, Analysis, and Composition, Mr. G. enlarges on the preceding chapters of Elements, and certainly has confused *our* heads (what-

(whatever be the fate of his scholars) with a multiplicity of directions to 'write down,' and 'commit to memory.' We really do not *remember* to have ever seen a book of instruction so defective in style and method; for it is a perfect *hotch-potch* of rules, definitions, lessons, and memoranda. At the same time it is a remarkable instance of persevering industry, since the labour of the author must have been great indeed in preparing such a work for the press. It is equally curious to the eye; its typographical execution is certainly very clever; and the plates of Examples, which are very numerous, have an exceedingly neat and correct finish.

Mr. G. is very liberal in his communications under the following head (p. 61.): 'The primitive Formation of the Cross-hand and flying Harpeggio Passages.' We are scarcely competent to judge of the *correctness* of these remarks, or to pass an opinion on the merit of any peculiarity in Mr. Geib's method of fingering such passages: but we cannot fail to see the disadvantage of an almost endless division of the subject, and of a multitude of rules that would seem to require a life to study and practise them. At p. 75., he very considerably says, 'I wish the student to *pause* for a while, and reflect on the *immense variety* I have led him through,' &c.

'The student, before proceeding further in the study of the application of the chords and passages treated of to the principles of composition, must take under review all he has done. He must practise a portion of exercises weekly; paying the greatest attention to the time, accent, and rhythm, and also, most strictly, observing to avoid all attempts at expression or effect: a good articulation, firm and distinct, without accentuation, is the most desirable achievement a scholar can possess; to qualify and prepare him for the most exquisite expression. He must audibly count all the minute divisions of the time of his exercises, and, at the same time, make the beats with his foot.'

After a pause which we also have found it necessary to make, we perceive, with some surprise, that little more than the half of Mr. G.'s work has yet been noticed: but we have examined the remainder; and to enumerate the *heads* only of subjects would extend this article to a very disorderly length. We can truly say, however, that we find every thing in the book that bears any relation to the theory and practice of music; delivered with a minuteness of detail, and a diversity of representation, that are very distracting and distressing to the reader:—the subject is exhausted. Mr. Geib is certainly a clever man, with an extensive fund of musical knowledge: but, from some infelicity, he has failed to give it to the public in a form as creditable to himself and useful to others as it might

might have assumed. If he really penned the *Preface* when the work was finished, we cannot wonder enough at his mistake in thinking that he had 'simplified the immutable laws of music to render them intelligible to a child.' Nor have we forgotten the encouragement given to us at the commencement to expect a *new and short road* to the attainment of all that was desirable in music. This pledge is not redeemed, for the volume is a wilderness in which we see no road whatever; and, if we may judge from our own case, even professors may wander and be lost in it.

We would gladly make an extract that would shew Mr. Geib to advantage: but he spoils or confounds almost every sentence with his monstrous love of fine words, fine figures, and fine sentiments. At p. 114. under the head *Rhythm*, he observes;

'Rhythm is the peculiar character of arrangement of the long and short notes through the piece. One of the greatest arts of composition is the correct management of the rhythm; it is the foundation of the building, on which must be elevated all the superstructure, the merits of which will stand or fall with the materials and fabrications of the *bass*. (Quære, *base*?) The poet may have ever so sublime an imagination, but without strict attention to metre and accent, his writings will want the music which only can captivate. The musician may have the greatest versatility of fancy, but, without a correct management of the rhythm, his compositions will never command admiration.'

Of 'Expression,' Mr. G. observes that it 'is the soul of music. It is the polish and finish of all that is excellent in music, and is its only part which interests our sentiments and passions. Therefore, all performers who wish to give delight to the hearers, must try their utmost abilities to express with pathos the very sentiment of musical language. To acquire expression is in the power of any player, if he will thoroughly become acquainted with the practice of the following principles.' Having remarked that 'the foundation for a good expression in music is a strong nimble finger,' he then lays down his '*principles*.'

'The finger can play every note with a clear touch, resembling the blow of a hammer. The finger can play every note with a pressure on the key, as if the end of the finger was formed of Indian rubber. Every note can be kept on a longer or a shorter time than the time the note is marked for. Every note can be played hard or soft. All chords of two or more notes can be struck simultaneous, or one after the other. The hands can perform the notes of a chord so rapidly, one after the other, as to produce a tremulous (tremulous) effect of all the notes of the chord. A

pause

pause in any part can be made to excite attention ; as the note of exclamation or admiration in reading. These observations comprise all the principles of expression : next, comes their application. When the notes have no character of expression written over them, they must be played with a firm distinct touch ; and every note and rest precisely measured by the finger according to its specific quantity : the notes must not be played loud or soft. *Especially remember*, without the strictest attention to time, the expression is lost.

Speaking of the pedals of the grand piano-forte, at p. 135, Mr. G. observes :

The loud or forte pedal is intended to confuse and *louden* the sound ; the tremando, with this pedal on, is good to produce the confusion of battle, or the roaring of a storm : the *maestoso* and *martial* effect are its character. Bells, triangles, and drums, are but children's toys, to make a noise without music ; unless they could be so constructed as to be in tune with the instrument they are attached to : if so, they would be of great service in *musical picturesque*.

The scholar must always observe, that the slower the piece, the more attention must be paid to the minute divisions of the time and expression : the *adagio* is a very slow, distinct, and *expressively* graceful movement ; the *largo*, heavy, slow, and *dragging* ; the *andante*, firm, distinct, and pointed ; *allegretto*, firm and plain, without too much point of expression ; *siciliano* and *cantabile*, with the greatest possible effect, every note *singing* under the finger, with a sorrowful, melancholy sound at every touch ; *allegro*, lively and gay, but not rapid ; *prestissimo*, rapid and brilliant ; *pastorale*, light, airy, pleasing, gay, imitating the dance, but not too fast.

Our readers, probably, will join with us in longing for the treat of the writer's own exemplification (on the piano-forte) of these delightful characters of expression ; and perhaps they will despair, as we do, of ever hearing *some* of them exemplified, unless by Mr. Geib himself.

As the author, near the close of his book, speaks of the method of *tuning* the piano-forte, we beg leave to indulge in a few remarks on the subject, having lately had our attention *practically* interested in it. We unite with Mr. G. in decidedly *preferring* what is called the *equal* temperament ; and this, in consequence of a very accurate comparison of the two systems, and after the use, for many years, of the opposite or *unequal* temperament. All musical persons are aware of the necessity of temperament (that is, of imperfect harmony) in all instruments of fixed notes or tones ; and that it gives rise to a very nice and difficult art of tuning the organ and piano-forte, so as to make them agreeable in their various harmonic relations.

relations. As to the cause of this effect, it is sufficient to remark here that a perfect *fifth* to one note does not, in nature, bear a just relation as a *third* to another note; and that, on all keyed instruments comprizing but twelve semitones in the octave, we are obliged to violate another law of nature, by making one and the same semitone serve as a sharp to the note below it, and a flat to the one above. As this subject involves a very curious problem in philosophy, it would have gratified us to speak of it more scientifically: but this article may probably be deemed long and dull enough without such an addition. We prefer the *equal temperament* for the following reasons:—it makes the semitones and the diatonic scale so much more satisfactory to the ear:—the practitioner can modulate with nearly equal pleasure into every key:—it gives spirit and brilliancy to the instrument:—it decidedly favours the correct and pleasant accompaniment of the flute and other instruments;—and we have had the satisfaction of finding that the thirds of a piano, so tuned, approached so near to the harmonic third of a *monochord* which we repeatedly compared with them, that no unpleasant difference was perceptible between them. We acknowledge that the sacrifice is considerable, of some perfect thirds obtained by the opposite system, viz. the unequal temperament: but the approvers of that temperament know that, for the pleasure of these perfect thirds, they must endure the most harsh relations in other parts of the instrument, very defective semitones, and a lifeless insipid diatonic scale. In giving up the unequal temperament, however, we were most unwilling to lose the agreeable fancy (*dream* we had nearly said) of a *diversity of character* in the respective keys,—a supposed effect of that mode of tuning. Indeed, we *held out* a long time: but now we have let it go, convinced that it is in great measure an imaginary notion, and half ashamed to have been pleased with an effect which, as far as it must be deemed *real*, is the result of *imperfection*,—an inharmonic relation of tones. This diversity is not founded in nature: it exists indeed in *different* instruments, but not in one and the same instrument:—it may also be perceived in different voices: but, as the diatonic scale is the same in its relations at *every pitch*, it would be very absurd to expect a change of character in the voice when shifting its key from C to D, or any other note.

We do not remember to have seen the following circumstance noticed any where; and we mention it, as a discovery, for the benefit of *tuners*. While tuning an organ some time ago, by various methods, we perceived at last a very obvious advantage in tuning by 12ths instead of the usual way by *semitones*.

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Taking C in the bass, we tuned to it the octave of its 5th, G; the relation of the two notes (a 12th) is measured by the ear with peculiar ease and accuracy; and we were highly pleased with finding that, in tuning the upper to the lower note, all disagreeable and (we may even say) all sensible *beats* ceased as we reached a 12th chord, *just short of a perfect chord*, and therefore a *tempered* note, as necessity prescribes. Many subsequent experiments have strengthened our conviction of the excellence of this method; and indeed we think that the practised tuner has on this plan an almost infallible guide to a proper tempered 5th; a fifth quite agreeable in itself, and forming a pleasant third in a relative harmony. The mode applies equally well to the piano-forte. — Having obtained this first 12th, we tune to it the octave G below; then the 12th to G above; to this second 12th we tune its two octaves below, then the third 12th a above, and so on till we arrive at F*, Returning then to the octave c above our first C, we tune to it F a 12th below: to that, its two octaves above; then B \flat below a 12th from the upper f, and so on till we arrive at F* again, or G \flat , as it more correctly is by this reverse movement. The reasoning tuner will see the propriety of tempering his fifths, *less* (that is, making them less imperfect) as he approaches the *mean* point by each process; since otherwise, the latter fifths (affected by all the previous temperaments) will not bear so just a relation as they should to notes determined *early* in the operation. Indeed, there is an unavoidable necessity for having one or two fifths in the reverse movement full and even a little more than full fifths, to meet the notes formed by the first proceeding: because an instrument cannot be tuned without an absurd result, except by two series of temperaments from above and below, which necessarily makes a great inharmonic interval at the point of union: so that, strictly speaking, there is no such thing as *equal* temperament. It is impracticable.

We should probably be understood on this curious subject without this farther remark: that a successive series of variations from the true fifth necessarily causes some diversities of the relative harmonies; which will be perceived at once, when it is considered that the *last* note tempered is to bear a certain proportion (that is, sustain a certain musical relation) to the *first* note which was *fixed*, and *determined* at the commencement.

When we have heard an instrument that was tuned by a delicate application of the above rule, we have been almost insensible to any disadvantage arising from the necessity of temperament, and felt no desire for any other division of the octave than that of its twelve semitones.

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To return to Mr. Geib. His elaborate publication concludes with a 'Cross-examination,' as full and redundant as the rest of the work: very useful and proper, we may imagine, in the writer's school-room, but not so well placed when set before the public. — We should have been happy to have noticed this extraordinary book more favourably: but, certainly, the author has not accomplished his object, if he commenced with the intention of making the theory and practice of music simple and easy, — 'intelligible to a child' — it is any thing but this. In truth, it is yet a desideratum with us to see the system of music as much divested of its technical language and character, and stated with as much simplicity, as we conceive it ought to be and might be.

Some of our readers may be pleased to know the following short rules for the thorough and figured bass, which we remember to have been given by a good scholar in music, the late Dr. Beckwith of Norwich.

Thorough Bass without Figures.

1. The seven intervals of every key are divided into fundamental and derived basses.
2. Fundamental basses in every key are the key-note, the fourth of the key, and fifth of the key.
3. Derived basses are the thirds above each fundamental.
4. The second of the key is also derived from the fifth of the key.
5. To every fundamental bass a common chord must be struck.
6. Every derived bass must have the chord of its respective fundamental.

Rules for figured Notes.

With a 9 play a 3d and 6th; with an 8 a 3d and 5th; with a 7 a 3d and 5th; with a 6 a 3d and 8th; with a 5 a 3d and 8th; with a 4 a 5th and 8th; with a 3 a 5th and 6th; with a 2 a 4th and 6th.

The following double figures are either additions or exceptions: With $\frac{6}{4}$ play an 8; with $\frac{5}{3}$ an 8; with $\frac{6}{5}$ play 3 and 8.

with $\frac{7}{2}$ play 4 and 5: with $\frac{9}{4}$ play 5 $\left. \begin{matrix} 9 \\ 7 \\ 5 \end{matrix} \right\}$

Whatever may be acquired beyond this, as modulation, accompaniment, and extempore playing, it cannot, we believe, be essentially assisted by rules, but must be the slow result of a cultivated taste and extended knowledge, derived from the careful study of our best masters.

ART. VII. *Capt. Parry's Journal of his Voyage of Discovery.*

ART. VIII. *Mr. Fisher's Journal of Capt. Parry's Voyage.*

ART. IX. *The North Georgia Gazette.*

[*Concluded from the last Review, p. 154.*]

As the whole extent of visible sea was still one compact mass of ice, averaging, according to conjecture, six or seven feet in thickness, and there appeared no immediate prospect of proceeding farther westward, Capt. Parry, with a party of officers and men, who volunteered their services, determined to explore the interior of Melville island; and, accordingly, they took their departure from the ships on the 1st of June, supplied with provisions for three weeks, two tents, a *conjurer*, (a portable cooking apparatus,) and a small quantity of wood for fuel. These several articles, the aggregate weight of which amounted to 800 pounds, were conveyed on a strong but light cart, constructed for the purpose, and so made as to be drawn by men along the snow, each individual carrying his requisite wardrobe in his knapsack. The travellers were to sleep in the day-time and march during the night, in order to keep themselves cool, and to avoid the glaring reflection of the sun from the snow. By allotting the warmest portion of their time to repose, moreover, they in some measure compensated for their slender provision of bedding. In this excursion, they traversed both hills and plains, which presented little else than scenes of waste and desolation. Sand-stone, some of which was contained in bedded pieces of coal, appears to have been the predominant rock. Among the scanty vegetation of the soil, various mosses, the dwarf willow, sorrel, wild poppy, and saxifrage, were principally observable. In the list of animals, we find the Musk Ox, Seal, Alpine Hare, Fox, Morse, Rein-deer, King-duck, Brent-goose, Plover, Ptarmigan, Sand Martin, Snow Bunting, Red Phalarope, Raven, Arctic Gull, and Loon.

Owing to the unequal distribution of the snow, to deep ravines, to partial thaws, and to frequent fogs, the progress of the march proved sometimes extremely slow and fatiguing, especially when the men were encumbered with the cart. Occasionally, however, the nature of the route, and the state of the wind, admitted of their hoisting on this vehicle a blanket or two as sails, which considerably relieved their efforts. From the reckonings of his course, Capt. Parry deduces the ensuing important inference:

I cannot help remarking in this place how extremely liable to error any account must necessarily be of the course and distance

made

made good during even a single day on a journey of this nature. We had long been in the habit of deducing all our bearings and courses on board the ships astronomically, that is, by the azimuth of the sun and the apparent time; and when I set out on this journey I had conceived that this habit would have enabled me to make tolerably certain at least of the direction in which our daily journey had been performed, whenever the sun should be visible. That this was by no means the case, though every possible attention was paid to it, will appear clear from an inspection of our track upon the map, which is laid down by the actual observations of two separate persons from day to day, and in which no material error could have occurred. My reason for dwelling upon this circumstance is to point out the extreme liability to error in laying down, by account, the position of any point at which a traveller may arrive after a journey of several hundred miles. This remark I cannot but consider to be peculiarly applicable to the journey of Hearne from the Hudson's Bay settlements to the shores of the Polar Sea, on the northern coast of America; in many hundred miles of which, and particularly in the most interesting part, not a single observation for latitude and longitude, or the variation of the magnetic needle, was obtained, whereby his daily estimate could be corrected. Should, therefore, the geographical position assigned by Hearne to the Copper-mine River be found at all near the truth, more especially in longitude, it will prove an extraordinary instance of the tendency of errors to correct each other; such as, I believe, does not often occur, when the distance gone over is so considerable, either by sea or land.

After a dreary journey of six days, the party reached the sea, on the northern coast of the island, in latitude $75^{\circ} 34' 47''$, and longitude $110^{\circ} 35' 52''$. Here the ice, which was sounded with much difficulty, proved to be fourteen feet, four inches, in thickness!

Having erected a conical monument of stone on this *ultima Thule*, and deposited within it an account of their visit, the detachment commenced their circuitous return on the 8th: but the irregularities and swampiness of the ground greatly impeded their progress, and particularly that of the cart. At length, on the 11th, in the course of winding down a deep ravine, the axle-tree broke short in the middle, and the useless carriage was condemned for fuel; each individual, with a solitary exception, cheerfully consenting to bear his proportion of additional luggage. Continuing their descent, they entered a pleasing and well sheltered cove, which was named after Mr. Bushman, midshipman on board the *Flecha*. Here the vegetation was more abundant and forward than it had been observed in any other place, and Capt. Sabine met with a ranunculus in full flower. The remainder of the journey, however, was far from flowery, being across hills, ravines,

ryines, and marshes: but it was traversed in safety; and on the 15th the wanderers regained Winter Harbour, amid the cordial congratulations of their shipmates.

Parties were next despatched on shore, and occasionally relieved, for the purpose of killing as much game as could be procured; so that the crews were, from time to time, supplied with venison, ducks, and ptarmigans, before they went to sea again. The sorrel gatherers, too, were very industrious; and the profusion of the leaves of that plant, served out to the officers and men, proved an excellent preventive of scurvy. Capt. Sabine, meanwhile, availed himself of the moderate state of the weather, to complete his series of observations on the pendulum. — In the course of these journals, the tardy progress of the thawing of the ice is repeatedly recorded, and no visible opening had taken place in the sea on the 17th of July, although the thermometer indicated from 55 to 60, the highest temperature that is noted. 'The month of July, is, indeed, the only one that can be called at all comfortable in the climate of Melville island.' Before the expiration of that month, the thermometer fell to 37 in the shade; from which period it seldom stood so high as 40 during the remainder of the summer, and the pools were frozen over in the night.

On the 1st of August, to the inexpressible joy of all concerned, the ships were released from their tedious and dreary confinement, and fresh efforts were made to penetrate farther in a western direction: but, after a painful course of fifty miles, and some days of hazardous detention, the obstructions from ice became quite insurmountable; and, the Griper having been on the point of destruction, Capt. Parry contemplated the expediency of steering in a more southerly direction, and endeavouring to advance westward in a lower latitude. 'The station at which the ships were now lying, and which is the westernmost point to which the navigation of the Polar sea to the northward of the American continent has yet been carried, is in latitude $74^{\circ} 26' 25''$, and longitude, by chronometers, $113^{\circ} 46' 43''.5$.' From this spot, the vessels having effected an arduous escape, an easterly course was now adopted; and, on consulting with his officers, the commander found that they unanimously concurred with him in opinion that, in the event of falling in with no desirable opening, they should immediately return to England. In conformity with this sentiment, the ice was traced on an easterly course to longitude 90° ; in the whole of which range it was ascertained that no practicable passage existed. The advanced period of the season, and the reduced resources of the navigators,

gators, having now rendered their return home a matter of necessity, full allowances of provisions and fuel were issued, and the western coast of Baffin's Bay was diligently explored as they sailed along. On the 5th of September, they encountered some English whalers, and on the following day a small party of Esquimaux. The first interview with these children of nature is thus described :

At six in the evening, being near the outermost of the islands with which we afterwards found this inlet to be studded, we observed four canoes paddling towards the ship ; they approached with great confidence, and came alongside without the least appearance of fear or suspicion. While paddling towards us, and indeed before we could plainly perceive their canoes, they continued to vociferate loudly ; but nothing like a song, nor even any articulate sound, which can be expressed by words, could be distinguished. Their canoes were taken on board by their own desire, plainly intimated by signs, and with their assistance, and they at once came up the side without hesitation. These people consisted of an old man, apparently much above sixty, and three younger, from nineteen to thirty years of age. As soon as they came on deck, their vociferations seemed to increase with their astonishment; and, I may add, their pleasure ; for the reception they met with seemed to create no less joy than surprise. Whenever they received a present, or were shewn any thing which excited fresh admiration, they expressed their delight by loud and repeated ejaculations, which they sometimes continued till they were quite hoarse, and out of breath, with the exertion. This noisy mode of expressing their satisfaction was accompanied by a jumping which continued for a minute or more, according to the degree of the passion which excited it, and the bodily powers of the person who exercised it, the old man being rather too infirm, but still doing his utmost, to go through the performance.

After some time passed on deck, during which a few skins and ivory knives were bought from them, they were taken down into the cabin. The younger ones received the proposal to descend somewhat reluctantly, till they saw that their old companion was willing to shew them the example, and they then followed without fear. We had soon occasion to remark that they were much better behaved people than the Esquimaux who had visited our ships in 1818, on the north-eastern coast of Baffin's Bay. Although we were much at a loss for an interpreter, we had no great difficulty in making the old man understand, by shewing him an engraved portrait of an Esquimaux, that Lieutenant Beechey was desirous of making a similar drawing of him. He was accordingly placed on a stool near the fire, and sat for more than an hour with very tolerable composure and steadiness, considering that a barter for their clothes, spears, and whalebone, was going on at the same time near him. He was, indeed, kept quiet by the presents which were given him from time to time ; and when this failed, and he became impatient to move, I endeavoured

to remind him that we wished him to keep his position by placing my hands before me, holding up my head, and assuming a grave and demure look. We now found that the old gentleman was a mimic, as well as a very good-natured and obliging man: for, whenever I did this, he always imitated me in such a manner as to create considerable diversion among his own people, as well as ours, and then very quietly kept his seat. While he was sitting for his picture, the other three stood behind him, bartering their commodities with great honesty, but in a manner which shewed them to be no strangers to traffic. If, for instance, a knife was offered for any article, they would hesitate for a short time, till they saw we were determined to give no higher price, and then at once consented to the exchange. In this case, as well as when any thing was presented to them, they immediately licked it twice with their tongues, after which they seemed to consider the bargain satisfactorily concluded. The youngest of the party very modestly kept behind the others, and, before he was observed to have done so, missed several presents, which his less diffident, though not importunate, companions had received. As the night closed in, they became desirous to depart, and they left us before dark, highly delighted with their visit. As I had purchased one of their canoes, a boat was sent to land its late owner, as only one person can sit in each. Mr. Palmer informed me, that, in going on shore, the canoes could beat our boat very much in rowing, whenever the Esquimaux chose to exert themselves, but they kept close to her the whole way. During the time that they were on board, we had observed in them a great aptness for imitating certain of our words; and, while going on shore, they took a particular liking to the expression of "Hurra, give way!" which they heard Mr. Palmer use to the boat's crew, and which they frequently imitated, to the great amusement of all parties.

The old man and one of his younger companions repeated their visit to the ships; and a party of our people afterward repaired to the tents of the Esquimaux on shore, and entered into a sort of bartering negotiation, which was conducted by the natives with perfect honesty, yet without any manifestation of fear. In the whole of the intercourse which took place, indeed, not a single instance occurred of any disposition to pilfer. So ravenous, however, were the dogs which were employed in dragging their sledges, that, if a bird was thrown to any of them, they generally swallowed it, feathers and all; and one dog which Captain Parry had purchased, and which was regularly fed, ate with great avidity a large piece of canvass, a cotton handkerchief, and part of a check shirt.

The ice having baffled all attempts to fall in with the land to the westward, Capt. P. determined, on the 26th of September, to take leave of the impenetrable barrier, and to shape his course directly for England. On this occasion, he enters into a dispassionate statement of his views relative to the farther

ther. prosecution of a north-west passage. Although little doubt can now remain that a communication between the two oceans actually exists through Sir James Lancaster's Sound, it seems also to be demonstrated that, owing to the endurance of the ice westward of Melville island, no navigable channel can be obtained at any season of the year. It is to be presumed, therefore, that a practicable passage is more likely to be discovered by keeping along the coast of America, in a latitude very considerably lower than any that has been recently attempted. In the mean time, it is suggested that a desirable station for the whale-fishery may, for some time to come, be found in Sir James Lancaster's Sound.

In the interval of navigation, from their departure out of the ice till the Hecla neared the Shetland isles, the ships were separated in a gale; the Hecla's bowsprit, foremast, and main-topmast, were carried away, without any material injury to the vessel or crew; and the phænomenon of the *Aurora Borealis* was at times both singular and brilliant. Before they parted company with the Griper, Lieutenant Liddon had been eventually instructed to repair to Lerwick, where Captain Parry intended to rejoin him: but the state of the wind, and the crippled condition of the Hecla, induced him to proceed directly for Leith. On the 29th of October, he made Buchaness; and the wind on the following day having come to the southward, he and Captain Sabine landed at Peterhead, and reached London on the morning of the third of November.

'Such,' he concludes, 'was the excellent state of health which we at this time continued to enjoy on board the Hecla, that during the whole season of our late navigation from Winter Harbour to the coast of Scotland, being a period of thirteen weeks, not a single case had been entered on our sick-list, except from one or two accidents of a trifling nature; and I had the happiness of seeing every officer and man on board both ships (with only one exception out of ninety-four persons) return to their native country in as robust health as when they left it, after an absence of nearly eighteen months, during which time we had been living entirely on our own resources.'

'The Griper arrived at Shetland on the 1st of November, and the Hecla at Leith on the 3d. Both ships came into the river Thames about the middle of November, and were paid off at Deptford on the 21st of the following month.'

In the body of the narrative which we have thus rapidly analyzed, will be found a regular abstract of the meteorological journals for each month, together with many nautical and scientific observations and registers, which can be perused and studied to advantage in the original alone. Of the extensive

Appendix

Appendix we shall take farther notice before we close this article. The remarks on the state of health and disease on board the two vessels, which close the volume, are at once instructive and gratifying: since they afford a striking proof of the salubrity of an Arctic atmosphere in summer; of the great intensity of cold which man, when properly clothed, may brave with impunity; of the efficacy of the rules and applications which were adopted to guard against the occurrence of scorbutic complaints; and of the humane and condescending attentions of the officers to every individual under their charge.

Common fairness to Capt. Parry will not allow us to dismiss his journal without applauding its gentleman-like style and sterling merit. It is, in fact, a plain, unvarnished, and modest relation; a very faithful transcript, we can easily believe, of the occurrences of the voyage; and devoid of the tricks and pretensions of authorship, of nicely poised antitheses, and of marvellous assertions designed to produce stage effect. Although the sober, and somewhat unvarying, tenor of the narrative is little calculated to gratify that morbid but too fashionable taste, which can be stimulated only by scenes of fiction or the pugnancy of satire, it cannot fail to be duly appreciated by the lovers of truth, and the advocates of national honour.

Mr. Fisher's anticipation of most of the interesting facts which are recorded in the official account of the voyage, by the publication of his volume before the appearance of his Commander's narrative, may involve considerations of delicacy and propriety, the discussion of which belongs not to our cognizance: but, viewing his diary merely as a literary publication, we must observe that it comprizes much information in a small compass; and that it contains fuller descriptions of some of the Arctic animals than we now find in the larger and more splendid volume, which refers to the forthcoming notices in natural history. Though few of Mr. Fisher's zoological statements can lay claim to novelty, we are not aware that the following circumstance relative to the White Dolphins (*Delphinus Bæluga*, Linn.) has been mentioned by our systematic writers:

' Whilst we were pursuing them to-day, I noticed a circumstance that appeared to me rather extraordinary at the time, and which I have not indeed been able to account for yet to my satisfaction. The thing alluded to, is a sort of whistling noise that these fish made when under the surface of the water; it was very audible, and the only sound which I could compare it to, is that produced by passing a wet finger round the edge, or rim, of a glass

glass tumbler. It was most distinctly heard when they were coming towards the surface of the water, that is, about half a minute before they appeared, and immediately they got their head above the water the noise ceased. The men were so highly amused by it, that they repeatedly urged one another to pull smartly, in order to get near the place where the fish were supposed to be, for the purpose of hearing what they called a "whale-song:" it certainly had very little resemblance to a song, but sailors are not generally the most happy in their comparisons.

Some of Mr. F.'s surmises and conjectures, if they were penned before actual observation had realized their accuracy, denote acuteness and discernment: but his postponements, or waiving of the discussion of a topic *for the present*, are so often repeated as to have somewhat of a ludicrous effect; and, in the *third* impression of a performance which adheres strictly to the form of a journal, we can perceive no good reason for omitting to enter the original remarks under the respective dates to which they refer. The author's extreme hurry to meet the demands of the public may excuse a few errors of the press in the first edition: but either he or some literary friend should have removed them from the second; and his apology for their being still visible in the third reminds us of a certain northern professor, who, for nearly half a century, stately commenced the course of his lectures with expressions of regret for their imperfections, on account of his having been *suddenly called to the chair*. — Besides, repeated and glaring violations of the most ordinary rules of grammar, dislocated syntax, and peculiar improprieties of phraseology, cannot all be laid to the charge of the printer.

The suggestion and execution of the 'North Georgia Gazette' are alike creditable to the parties concerned in it, and must have not a little contributed to beguile the protracted gloom of an Arctic winter. The spirit and management of this mock news-paper are both excellent; and, although none of the compositions were intended for publication, and now appear in their original form, several of them would not dishonour the professional talents of our periodical writers. Some of Mr. Wakeham's poetical effusions, in particular, possess great merit as *vers de société*. The following stanzas, sung at the theatre, may afford a sample of the facility of his muse:

Oh! what can compare with the beams of the morn,
When the bright sparkling dew-drops bespangle the thorn,
When Aurora's young blushes tint deeper the sky,
Ere the sun's flaming orb is yet mounted on high?
'Tis the soft smile of beauty, that beams from the eyes
Of thy daughters, fair Albion! the land that we prize.

When

- ' When distant, far distant, from all that's held dear,
From the happy fire-side, and the friend that's sincere;
What nerves for the battle the arm of the brave,
Or bids us encounter the storm-beaten wave?
'Tis the soft smile of beauty, that beams from the eyes
Of thy daughters, fair Albion! the land that we prize.
- ' Tho' thy sons in the field are undaunted in war,
And the fame of thy chieftains resounds from afar;
Tho' nature each charm in thine island combines,
One ray of thy glory all others outshines.
'Tis the soft smile of beauty, that beams from the eyes
Of thy daughters, fair Albion! the land that we prize.
- ' What leads us to traverse these regions unknown,
And explore each recess of this dark frozen zone?
Tho' with thirst of renown every bosom may burn,
What reward do we hope when again we return?
'Tis the soft smile of beauty, that beams from the eyes
Of thy daughters, fair Albion! the land that we prize.'

From among the prose compositions, whether of a grave or a gay complexion, it would be difficult to select a specimen of pre-eminent desert: but that reader must be fastidious indeed, who refuses to be pleased with the communications of *Peeping Tom* and of Z, to say nothing of various unsigned articles. For the rest, the good humour and benignity which pervade those ephemeral pages present an amiable and striking contrast to the spirit of unprincipled calumny and detraction which degrades the character of some of our public prints, and excites the indignation of every lover of the genuine freedom of the press or the decorum of society.

We shall now attend to the scientific papers inserted in the appendix to Capt. Parry's volume. These experimental results are very properly kept distinct from the popular detail of the voyage; as they would otherwise have alike impeded the progress of the general reader, and embarrassed the researches of the philosophical inquirer.

Besides the immediate object of the expedition, which had geography for its basis, other consequences of a scientific nature were anxiously expected; among which those that related to magnetism were the most prominent. Another question, however, highly interesting to navigators, was likely to receive some elucidation from a winter's observation within the Arctic circle; viz. how far the cold of those regions would affect the rate of chronometers. The balance of these instruments is formed in such a manner as to furnish a compensation for different degrees of temperature: but never had a chronometer been exposed to such a degree of cold, at least for so long a time, as in this instance. Mr. Fisher, in his
voyage

voyage with Capt. Buchan, had found a singular change in the rate of his watches; and it was perhaps questionable whether it was occasioned by the effect of the cold on shore, or was due to the action of the iron on board. This subject, of great importance to a considerable class of persons, was therefore likely to meet with some illustration in the volume before us; and certainly we must allow that Capt. Parry and Capt. Sabine paid every attention to it which can be desired.

Another great philosophical question might be expected to claim the attention of our adventurous voyagers, namely, the *figure of the earth*, as it results from observations on the vibrations of the pendulum. The effect of gravity in accelerating the rate of a clock, whether we regard it merely as it depends on the diminution of the centrifugal force, or on the intensity of action occasioned by the compression of the polar axis, ought to be rendered extremely obvious in a latitude so high as 74° ; and it is very pleasing to find that Captain Sabine's observations give a more uniform compression than any others which have yet been undertaken. We understand that this gentleman is now on a voyage to the island of Ascension, for the purpose of making a series of experiments to compare with his former. We shall not, however, as this subject will come before us in our review of the next part of the Philosophical Transactions, where Capt. Sabine has published his series of observations, enter into particulars in this place; confining our abstract to the two subjects mentioned above, and beginning with the most prominent, *i. e.* the tables of magnetical experiments and observations.

The Arctic regions have been long known to be the great focus of magnetic phenomena. It is there that this mysterious power develops itself in its most perspicuous form. Although the needle, which in all other parts of the world is the seaman's surest guide, there loses that invaluable property, its power is increased, but its direction is so nearly perpendicular, that its actual bearing cannot be ascertained within any reasonable limits; at least not without the greatest precautions and the most delicate instruments. Ever since the directive quality of the compass has been known, an idea has been entertained that there must be some great point of attraction either in or near the terrestrial pole, to which the needle directs itself; and it was probable that in the course of this voyage this point would be actually passed over, or that a much nearer approximation towards it would be made than any that had hitherto been effected. Such has indeed been the

the case, Capt. Parry being the first navigator who ever passed between the terrestrial and the magnetic poles.

We wish, however, our readers to understand that, in speaking of the magnetic pole, we rather accommodate our language to popular opinion than to our own views of the subject; for we are by no means inclined to admit the existence of a magnetic pole, according to the usual acceptance of that term: because, from some attention paid to this subject, we are convinced that scarcely any set of variations, where they are the best known, will agree in the determination of such a point. Nothing indeed is more obvious, from the simple inspection of a magnetic chart, than this want of coincidence. If a point existed towards which the needle turned in all parts of our hemisphere, it ought to follow that great circles, drawn through the zenith of different places in the direction of the horizontal needle, would intersect in that point or pole: but this is far from being the fact. That the intersection in most instances would fall somewhere within the polar circle is true: but it would be found sometimes in east, and at others in west longitude; in one case, in the pole of the earth; and, in another, on or even beyond the Arctic circle. Let us mention one extremely obvious instance. At Spitzbergen, the variation is nearly the same as in London, and consequently the magnetic meridian of that place will pass at no great distance from the terrestrial pole; whereas the pole passed by Capt. Parry is as nearly as possible in lat. 67° north, and long. 101° west, viz. far to the southward of the former place, and more than 100° to the westward of it. We might adduce numerous other instances, in which those lines that ought to converge actually diverge; and others again which, although they converge and intersect, by no means indicate a common focus of attraction.

This view of the subject is doubtless somewhat discouraging, but it is not the less true; and we are highly indebted to the author for the pains which he has taken to furnish us with many interesting data, drawn from actual observations in regions hitherto inaccessible to man, and where every thing connected with this particular science was involved in doubt and conjecture.

As our limits will not admit of farther comment, we shall proceed to make such an abstract of these results as will enable our scientific readers to judge for themselves of the propriety of the preceding remarks. It is not difficult to compute the point of intersection of any two great circles, whose position is given; and even without computation, by means of a globe, we may obtain a very ready solution of such

such a question : consequently, we advise those of our young readers, who are dexterous in the use of these instruments, to make the examination to which we have alluded. The following table will furnish a series of examples, which may be increased *ad libitum* by taking the known variation in other places ; as for example, London, Paris, Copenhagen, &c.

Abstract of the principal Observations on the Dip and Variation of the Needle.

DIP.			VARIATION.		
Lat.	Long.	Dip.	Lat.	Long.	Variation.
51° 31' N.	0° 0'	70° 33'	59° 49' N.	48° 09' W.	48° 38' W.
64 0	61 50 W.	83 04	63 58	61 50	61 11 W.
72 0	60 0	84 14	70 29	59 12	74 39 W.
73 30	77 22	86 03	72 00	59 56	80 55 W.
72 45	89 41	88 26	73 05	60 11	82 02 W.
73 33	88 18	87 36	73 31	77 22	108 46 W.
75 10	103 44	88 25	74 25	80 08	106 58 W.
74 55	104 12	88 29	72 45	89 41	118 16 W.
74 47	110 34	88 29	74 40	91 47	128 58 W.
74 27	111 42	88 36	75 09	103 44	165 50 E.
74 47	110 48	88 43	75 03	105 54	158 04 E.
68 30	64 21	84 21	74 47	110 49	127 47 E.
51 43	00 14	70 33	70 22	68 37	80 59 W.

We have selected this table out of the numerous series of observations given in the Appendix ; and it is formed so as to manifest, in a perspicuous and concise manner, the order of the changes observed by a change in the latitude and longitude ; all those being omitted which were taken near to the same spot. From the 9th and the 12th line, in the above selection, the variation will be found to amount to nearly the same quantity, but the one east and the other west ; from which we easily deduce that the line of no variation must have been somewhere near 101° of west longitude ; and on the same meridian, in about 67° of north latitude, is doubtless situated that pole which Capt. Parry passed after he had left Barrow's Strait. It is remarkable that Professor Hansteen, of Norway, in his recent magnetic chart, has fixed his principal northern magnetic pole as nearly as possible in this longitude, and within three degrees of the latitude found by the observations above selected : but it is still more singular that the intersection of the terrestrial and the magnetic equator is very nearly on the same meridian ; whereas they ought to be, on the supposition of two magnetic poles, the most distant from each other in this place.

We

We must now pass to another series of experiments; viz. on the local attraction of the ship's iron on the compass; a subject of high interest to navigators, because, without a proper knowledge of this species of action, the compass loses half its value. It appears from the observations detailed in this part of the Appendix, that the errors at east and west amounted each to more than 14° , and consequently would produce an uncertainty of more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ points. The error is certainly not so great in more southern latitudes, but it is every where important. In England, the errors arising from this action at the east and west, and the two consecutive points to each, were about 4° ; and at the same points in lat. 78° north, they amounted as above stated to 14° . We are sorry that we have not space for detailing these results more minutely.

The next subject for experiment, and one that is intimately connected with the theory of magnetism, is the intensity of the magnetic force; which is determined by counting the number of vibrations that the needle makes in a given time. The actual magnetic intensity, as we have already stated, increases as we approach the pole: but its horizontal force is almost entirely lost; and it was of course an object of great moment to have the exact ratio of the increase in the one case and the decrease in the other well determined, in regions where an opportunity never before presented itself for making such experiments, and where it will seldom happen in future. It is therefore highly creditable to Captains Parry and Sabine to have furnished so complete a series of observations of this kind. We must, however, confine ourselves strictly to results; viz.

1. The time in which the dipping needle made 100 vibrations at Sheerness was - - - 8' 02"
- Ditto ditto at Winter Harbour - - - 7 26 $\frac{1}{2}$
- Ditto ditto in the Regent's Park, on the return of the expedition - - - 8 00
2. The time in which the horizontal needle made 10 vibrations at Sheerness - - - 1 30
- Ditto in Davis's Strait - - - 2 31
- Ditto in Winter Harbour - - - 2 43

These results are for the shorter arcs, and on one needle only; and the general mean will be best perceived from the following abstract. The intensity of the direct magnetic force should, by theory, vary inversely as the square root of $(4 - 3 \sin^2 d)$, where d is the dip; and the horizontal force, inversely as the square root of $(3 + \sec^2 d)$. With these formulæ we have the following comparison:

The dip in London being $70^{\circ} 35'.3$, and at Winter Harbour $88^{\circ} 43'.5$, the force in the direction of the dipping needle should increase by calculation in the ratio 1.153 to 1. Its actual increase, however, is as 1.163 to 1.

The dip at Sheerness being $69^{\circ} 55'$, and at Winter Harbour $88^{\circ} 43'.5$, the force on the horizontal needle should be diminished in the ratio of 13.275 to 1: but, by observation on the three needles separately, its actual diminution was found to be, needle No. 1. as 12.93 to 1; No. 2. as 13.23 to 1; No. 3. as 13.83 to 1.

This remarkable coincidence in the results would be very satisfactory, if the theory and observations agreed with each other as to the actual situation of the pole: but, being defective in this respect, the above results lose all their connection with the formulæ with which they are compared; and instead of an agreement, as it is denominated by the author, it becomes nothing more than a 'remarkable coincidence' between results which have no connection with each other. — We have seen also a paper in one of our scientific journals, in which the writer has fallen into the same error by supposing that the experiments are confirmations of the theory, whereas, taking them *in toto*, they rather contradict it.

With regard to the Chronometers: never before were such instruments submitted to so severe a trial; and it is highly creditable to the state of the mechanical arts, that in no instance did chronometers maintain a greater uniformity of action than the voyagers observed in five, particularly, on board of the Hecla. Many of the others also preserved an excellent rate while they were kept shut up in the cabin: but they were found incompetent to contend with the severity of the climate when exposed to its influence; and they stopped, one by one, or had their rates considerably affected, as the cold was let into the cabin by removing the dead-lights. The five mentioned above, however, resisted the most intense cold, and maintained their respective rates in the most uniform manner during the whole voyage, as will be seen by the following abstract:

Nos.	Rates, 1st Series.	2d Series.	3d Series.
228	5".775	6".619	6".20
253	27 . 62	27 .628	27 .60
254	1 . 98	2 . 22	2 .79
259	1 . 25	1 .853	2 .28
2109	10 . 42	11 .475	11 .50

The first of the above series is from May to July, by transit-observations at Melville island; the second was taken
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at sea by comparison with No. 259.; and the third in London after the return of the expedition. Those persons who are well acquainted with the general action of chronometers, and with the change of rate to which they are commonly liable on being transferred from land to ship-board, or the contrary, will be best able to appreciate the high perfection attained in the construction of these watches; the first four of which were supplied from one house, that of Messrs Parkinson and Frodsham, and the fifth was the manufacture of Arnold. A most absurd claim, however, has since been set up by another person, to the merit of the construction of the first four; and it has given rise to a paper-war between the parties, which has terminated in a manner highly creditable to the character of their actual makers, whose names the watches bear.

ART. X. *A Manual of Chemistry*; containing the principal Facts of the Science, arranged in the Order in which they are discussed and illustrated in the Lectures at the Royal Institution of Great Britain. By William Thomas Brande, Secretary of the Royal Society of London; Member of, and Professor of Chemistry in, the Royal Institution of Great Britain, &c. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 5s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

MR. BRANDE has the art of exhibiting science in a very showy dress. As soon as he steps out of the laboratory, he lays aside all the starched and rigid airs of a philosopher; and, when he appears as an author at our critical tribunal, he comes with so much courtesy and coaxing that we could not "find it in our hearts" to treat him with severity, even if he deserved it. Indeed, we see little in his book that calls for animadversion, except its *lady-like appearance*; and it would be very ungentle in us to quarrel with the author for his drawing-room manners, though a little in excess:—but he will not, we presume, be offended if we hint that this is the first time that we have seen a *Manual*, or as the Germans call it a *Hand-Book*, in three goodly octavo volumes of thick hot-pressed wove paper. He assuredly must have rather an exaggerated idea of the *hands* of his readers, when he proposes to load them with so bulky an article; unwieldy enough, we should think, for the capacious palms of Dominie Sampson himself. Even the first edition, which was comprized in one volume, nobody but Mr. Brande would have dreamed of baptizing a *Manual*. Still we shall not differ with him about a name; nor stay now to inquire with what justice he has treated the purchasers of his last year's edition,

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by adding two volumes to the work: we must look on it as a new publication, and consider him as the compiler of a system of chemistry.

In performing his task, the Professor has followed (as the title-page informs us) the arrangement of his lectures at the Royal Institution; and this it is, we conceive, which has given to his pages throughout so much the look of an exhibition of printed paragraphs. For such an effect, then, Mr. Brande is not perhaps altogether blameable, because he could scarcely avoid it. The circumstances in which a man is placed always influence his character; and the popular lecturer of the Institution being in a manner compelled to please his lady-auditors with something attractive, the habit has grown on him, and may be traced in most of his productions. The style of his public teaching may be seen from his printed *Lectures on Geology*; in which he gives about as much of the science as may apologize for the title of the book, but finds it more convenient to escape as often as he can into a gayer atmosphere and brighter scenes. The mention of rocks instantly wings him away to cascades which fall over rocks; and a sentimental description of the fall of Fyers as naturally follows the idea of a cascade, as the history of the Plymouth Breakwater succeeds to the mention of stones, or as an account of Sir H. Davy's Safety-lamp is introduced by the observations on coal-mines: — the stones being employed to construct the Breakwater, and the lamp being used by miners. Yet these details about the fall of Fyers, the Plymouth Breakwater, and the Safety-lamp, have little connection with the science, though they form the leading portion of the book as they did of the Course.

Next to the press, popular lectures are the most efficient instruments of diffusing knowledge; and one fact is conclusive, that useful rather than showy information is the most popular, and most wanted. We allude to the fate of Mr. Brande's book on *Geology*, which may be said to have been still-born, notwithstanding its descriptions of romantic cascades; while Mrs. Marcet's "*Conversations*," in which all is plain, useful, and unvarnished knowledge, have an extensive and increasing sale. In the same way, we are convinced, those lectures will be most attended which are the most instructive, though destitute of fine paragraphs and imposing experiments.

We must not, however, mislead our readers. Professor Brande has improved, and is now become a much better book-maker than he was when he published his *Geology*; and, though we still have here a great deal too much of what

in any other man but the Secretary of the Royal Society would be called quackery, yet the Manual (if we *must* call it so) contains a large proportion of valuable and correct science, which he has collected with some industry and dressed up with great care. The first volume contains the History of Chemistry; Attraction; Heat; Electricity and Elementary Bodies. The second, Metals; Analysis of Minerals and Mineral Waters. The third, Vegetable Substances; Animal Substances; Geology; and an Index. In this order we shall therefore accompany the author, in offering the remarks which have occurred to us while perusing the work.

Though we looked anxiously in the preface for some account of the rapid transformation in size which the book has undergone, on this point we found Mr. B. totally silent. We may therefore take the liberty of mentioning that the History of Chemistry, which occupies a great portion of the first volume, is almost *verbatim* the same with his Dissertation in the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; and that the third volume is mostly composed of his "Outlines of Geology," with an index of not less than eleven sheets of handsome letter-press. The additions, therefore, to the former work are few and unimportant, though the price is materially augmented. Mr. B.'s history of alchymy and the earlier experiments is both amusing and eloquent, while it also evinces that he is skilled in the art of keeping bounds; for it would have been easy to have stuffed a volume full of the unintelligible dreams of Hermes, Roger Bacon, and Albertus Magnus, who were all much worse than Sir Kenelm Digby, and Evelyn affirms that *he* was "an arrant mountebank." Their pretensions were, as every body knows, to transmute the baser metals and other substances into gold and silver: but, as Spenser most emphatically expresses it, they were doomed

" To lose good days that might be better spent,
To waste long nights in pensive discontent;
To speed to-day, to be put back to-morrow;
To feed on hope, to pine with fear and sorrow;
To fret their souls with crosses and with cares,
To eat their hearts through comfortless despairs:
Unhappy wights! born to disastrous end,
That do their lives in tedious tendance spend."

Mr. Brande remarks that 'it has been too common to load the alchymists with honours which they ill deserve, as their history presents nothing that the mind rests upon with satisfaction; nothing that it reverts to with interest or profit:' but surely this is a rash and hasty conclusion. We do not

contend,

contend, nor have we ever heard it maintained, that the alchemists made much progress in discovery, numerous as their experiments were by which they hoped to find out a method of multiplying the precious metals, and of preparing the universal medicine. Yet, though we may look on their actual discoveries as trifling, it would be wrong to estimate their influence on the progress of the science by this test alone. The materials on which they operated, the apparatus which they employed, and their habits of life, were all so many stepping-stones to assist their successors in advancing to more profound and accurate investigations; and it is not quite fair in the present author, who is enjoying a part of the fruits of their laborious researches, to undervalue them so much, though they did not discover the properties of nitric acid or the decomposition of water.

Basil Valentine, perhaps the greatest discoverer of the earlier chemists, was contemporary with the alchemists; and, though Mr. Brande is unwilling to allow it, we think that he was not less indebted to them than Newton was to Kepler. It is by no means likely that he could have discovered both nitric and sulphuric acid, and made advances in examining their properties, had he invented the science *ab initio*, and never tried or heard of the art of transmuting metals into gold. Basil Valentine appears to have stood in a relation to the alchemists, similar to that which Sir Humphrey Davy bears to Scheele and Franklin. Paracelsus, Van Helmont, and Glauber followed up the discoveries of Valentine by others; and at length, under the genius of Boyle, Hooke, and Mayow, chemistry took the form of a regular and important science. The Professor has judiciously availed himself of several late publications which illustrate the state of learning at this period, and from which several apt quotations are brought to enliven his pages. The character of Boyle, for instance, is given from Evelyn's Memoirs; who says, "that he had a marvellous sagacity in finding out many useful and noble experiments. Never did stubborn matter come under his inquisition, but he extorted a confession of all that lay in her most intricate recesses, and what he discovered he as faithfully registered and frankly communicated. In this exceeding my Lord Verulam, who (though never to be mentioned without honour and admiration) was used to tell all that came to hand. In a word, he was a person of that singular candour and worth, that to draw a just character of him, one must run through all the virtues as well as through all the sciences."

The *calces* of metals, or the earthy-like substances which resulted from exposing them to heat, began to excite interest early in the seventeenth century; and a tract, very remarkable for the period at which it was written, appeared on this subject in France about, or previous to, the year 1630, intitled, "*Essais de JEAN REY, Docteur en Medecine, sur la Recherche de la Cause pour laquelle l'Estain et le Plomb augmentent de poids quand on les calcine.*" It is now extremely rare: but, as Mr. Brande must have access to it, (if we may so conclude from the translation which he is now publishing in his *Journal*,) we think that the notice which he has taken of it is too brief for its extraordinary merit. The work was occasioned by Le Brun having melted *two pounds and six ounces* of tin, and finding that in six hours the whole had become a calx, weighing not less than *three pounds and one ounce*; — when he applied to Rey to try whether he could discover the cause of the phenomenon. Rey immediately set about an investigation of the subject; and, by careful experiment and observation, he found that *the increase of weight in the calx was owing to the absorption and fixation of air.*

Here a point of great importance was gained: but Rey's tract seems to have been little noticed, or at least its merits to have been little understood or appreciated; for the theory of Stahl, founded on the now exploded doctrine of phlogiston, afforded no explanation of the increase of weight in calces. This doctrine of Stahl maintained an undisputed ascendancy for nearly a century, throwing into the shade all the opinions and discoveries of preceding philosophers. In its turn, however, like other systems and theories, Stahl's hypothesis was doomed to fall before the arguments of Lavoisier; who, though he contributed little himself in the way of original experiment, had the art of turning the recent and important investigations of Hales, Scheele, Black, and Priestley to the best account, in building a system of some regularity and consistency. It is to Lavoisier that we are indebted for the new nomenclature of chemistry; which the admirers of terms compounded of Greek radicals consider as a much greater and more meritorious effort, than any of the discoveries which these terms designate. We have no objection to the admiration of goodly words, and those of chemistry are decidedly the best of the new family: but those persons must be frenchified indeed who would give Lavoisier as much credit for *naming* as they would allot to Scheele, Black, and Priestley for *discovering* the chief gases and the phenomena of heat.

But the old nomenclature is still in use, and Mr. Brande

Mr. Brande has done ample justice to all the more celebrated names in the brilliant constellation of chemists, among whom Cavendish, Franklin, Volta, Galvani, Berthollet, Davy, &c. are particularly distinguished; but it would exceed our limits to follow him in detail; and indeed their history is now familiar to all readers, even of the slenderest information and industry. It may not, however, be known to all that the author of *Waverley* has given a sketch of the character of one of the greatest chemists of recent times, — if we estimate greatness by usefulness: — we allude to James Watt, the celebrated improver of the steam-engine.

“He was a man,” says this author, “whose genius discovered the means of multiplying our national resources to a degree perhaps even beyond his own stupendous powers of calculation and combination; bringing the treasures of the abyss to the surface of the earth; giving to the feeble arm of man the momentum of an Afrite; commanding manufactures to arise, as the rod of the prophet produced water in the desert; affording the means of dispensing with that time and tide which wait for no man, and of sailing without that wind which defied the commands and threats of Xerxes himself. This potent commander of the elements, — this abridger of time and space, — this magician, whose cloudy machinery has produced a change on the world, the effects of which, extraordinary as they are, are perhaps only now beginning to be felt, — was not only the most profound man of science, the most successful combiner of powers and calculator of numbers, as adapted to practical purposes; was not only one of the most generally well-informed, but one of the best and kindest of human beings. In his eighty-fourth year his attention was at every one’s question, his information at every one’s command.”

In the chapter on the powers and properties of matter, and the general laws of chemical changes, we have a very neat and lucid view of the theories which have been advanced concerning crystallization, by Romé de L’Isle, Haüy, Dr. Wollaston, and more recently by Mr. Daniels. All of these inquirers seem to be agreed in considering crystals as made up of primitive particles of a definite configuration. Dr. Wollaston and Mr. Daniels have decided in favour of spherical particles: but, after due consideration of their arguments and experiments, we cannot discover any satisfactory evidence for their conclusion. On the contrary, it appears to us, if the particles of all or of any species of crystals be spheres, that we ought to be able to detect this fact by the microscope. At least, we ought by this means to see the surfaces of crystals bestudded with the minute triangular holes, or *fossæ*, which must arise from the contact of every three contiguous spheres. It is an unfair evasion to say that

the spheres are too small for the detection of the most powerful microscope. This indeed may be so, but on what evidence is it proved? Is it scientific or philosophical to give us, for satisfactory experimental proof, nothing but fanciful diagrams and wood-cuts of variously aggregated spheres? It is nothing to us, or to reality, that mathematical demonstrations can be founded on such diagrams, and that the conclusions thence obtained agree marvelously with known facts and experiments. It is analytical proof and not synthetical hypotheses which we have a right to demand; and, until this be afforded, we must demur to the doctrine of crystallization founded on the diversified aggregation of spheres or spherules.

Mr. Daniels is intitled to great praise for endeavouring to analyze crystals by solution: but we think that he was rather hasty in constructing a *theory* on his scanty collection of facts. One point he ascertained, which must considerably diminish our confidence in the form of crystals as a specific or a generic distinction in mineralogy. In dissecting crystals of alum by solution, he found, instead of a primitive crystal or nucleus, that, according to circumstances, the crystals were octohedrons, tetrahedrons, cubes, four and eight sided prisms, either with plain or with pyramidal terminations, and rhombic parallelopipedons. Alum, accordingly, may be found crystallized in all those eight forms; and other substances (oxyd of tin, for example,) may be discovered under still more numerous forms of crystallization. This must certainly render it a very dubious characteristic of minerals; though we perceive that M. Mohs, the successor of Werner at Freyberg, has made it the basis of a new system. To draw a parallel from botany, what could be made of the stamens and pistils as a characteristic of classes and orders, were they to vary in number as we have seen the number of sides vary in crystals of alum? — Crystallization indeed seems to be still in its infancy as a branch of science.

In treating of electricity, Professor Brande has succinctly detailed the most recent experiments and improvements. Some of our readers may perhaps thank us for mentioning the extraordinary and unexpected connection between magnetism and electricity, recently discovered by Professor Oersted of Copenhagen. He found, when the poles of the Voltaic apparatus are connected by a steel wire, that it acquires magnetic properties; and if by a platinum or other metallic wire, that wire exhibits numerous magnetic poles which attract and repel the common magnetic needle. M. Oersted is still pursuing the investigation, and his experiments have been repeated and confirmed by more than one distinguished chemist in this country.

We were not a little surprised to observe that, in his account of the polarization of light, the author has quoted Thomson's *Chemistry* as the chief authority; because we very recently learned from another of Mr. Brande's works that Dr. Thomson is altogether ignorant of the subject. How will Mr. Brande reconcile these clashing circumstances? Dr. Thomson's manner of treating his contemporaries is not, we know, the most courteous; and his annual measurements of praise, in his retrospects of the progress of chemistry, may sometimes give great offence: but we expect that those who feel themselves aggrieved should at least be consistent when they retaliate. As to Dr. Thomson's knowledge of polarization, we could never comprehend any of his attempts to explain it, in his *System*, or in his *Annals*, or in his *Lectures*: but it might be our own dullness which was chargeable. Such things do happen.

The view which Prof. Brande has taken of the elementary bodies is scientific, and, *as far as it goes*, satisfactory: but we were more than once disappointed at the brevity of the detail, compared with the size of the work. Some of the most important subjects are provokingly short; as the section on oxygen, which contains only a few meagre notices of the substances from which it is produced, and of its properties; the rest being made up of a description of the *hydro-pneumatic apparatus*. The theory of combustion is thrust in at the end of the section, and dismissed in a few lines, which have the air of an historical notice rather than of a scientific explanation. Chlorine and iodine are discussed in an equally brief manner; and in the same way as under hydrogen we have *hints* of their application in the useful arts; which are so meagre, and so little detailed, that their only possible use can be to inform the mere tyro that such substances are employed in bleaching, &c. With no other instructions than those which are afforded in this Manual, it would be difficult to make a single experiment, even to verify the results of those which are here occasionally given. Had we not been assured that Mr. Brande has been teaching chemistry for several years, we should have been led to imagine, from the style of this part of the work, that the composition of the prefatory history had injuriously influenced his manner in the scientific portion: for we cannot divest ourselves of the feeling that it appears more like what we might expect in an historical sketch of the progress of the science, than an elementary treatise from which a beginner might derive instruction.

When, however, the author chooses to lay aside the historical style, he can assume the interesting simplicity of a teacher;

teacher; and of this capability we shall select an example from his account of the atomic theory, which is in most books so mystified with hypothesis, and rendered so formidable by arrays of figures, as to have a very forbidding aspect to the indolent inquirer.

'When bodies unite so as to form one compound only, that compound always contains the same relative proportions of its components; and where two bodies unite in more than one proportion, the second, third, &c. proportions are multiples or divisors of the first. Water, *e. g.* is composed of hydrogen and oxygen, and one part by weight of the former gas unites to 7.5 of the latter. The specific gravity of hydrogen, compared with that of oxygen, is as 1 to 15; it is obvious, therefore, that one volume of hydrogen unites to half a volume of oxygen, and that the composition of water will be represented by weight and volume thus:

1.	7.5
Hydrogen.	Oxygen.

'Lead combines with oxygen in three proportions; the first compound consists of 100 lead + 8 oxygen; the second of 100 + 12; the third of 100 + 16.'

One of the most laboured and best executed portions of this 'Manual' is that which treats on Assay, and the Analysis of Minerals and Mineral Waters; and it would indeed have been marvellous, considering Mr. Brande's opportunities, if he had been deficient in this department, with the splendid apparatus of the Institution at his command, and every facility which the wealth of England can afford to promote his labours. Yet he has not been very successful in the field of discovery: not owing, we think, by any means to that field having been pre-occupied or exhausted by his illustrious predecessor, Sir H. Davy, but rather to that bane of originality and independent thinking, the habit of following the views of others, which regular instruction in regular schools so often produces. Sir H. Davy himself would scarcely have risen to the eminence which he has attained, if he had studied in the routine now prescribed at the Institution.

It may interest some of our readers to learn those articles which the author enumerates as the requisite tests for analyzing mineral waters. They are, 'Pure sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acid; dilute sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acid, one part being acid and three parts water; solutions of potass, soda, ammonia, and their carbonates; oxalic acid, oxalate of ammonia, barytes, acetate of barytes, nitrate of barytes,

barytes, phosphate of soda, and sulphate of silver; iodine in alcohol, nitrate of silver, ferro-cyanite of potass, muriate of lime, hydrosulphuret of ammonia, hydriodate of potass, soap in alcohol; pure alcohol; phosphorus; sulphate of lime; test papers, turmeric, litmus, violet; black flux; and nitrate of ammonia.' An outline-print is also given of a portable laboratory for the same purpose, and a description of the necessary apparatus.

The part of the work which is devoted to the consideration of vegetable and animal chemistry possesses nearly the same character with the elementary part; that is, it includes more subjects than there is room to discuss. For example, in the section on colouring matter, we have the art of dyeing and of calico-printing; and under the head of oils we have soaps and soap-making; all of which are dismissed in one or two pages. Manufacturers can gain no information from such brief notices; nor can the student understand them for want of details. Mr. Brande says that he intends them only to furnish a general idea of the processes: but he should have remembered that, as every *general* is made up of *particulars*, so general ideas can be furnished only from details. There can be no such thing as a general idea of the art of dyeing, which is not composed of the details of the processes; and, according as the details are the more minute and more accurate, the general notion will be the more perfect. Our remark may appear puerile or hypercritical; but, when authors will disregard the first principles of logic, we must remind them that they are amenable to its laws.

We should have imagined that the Professor would never again have intermeddled with geology, in any of his publications; yet here we have a large proportion of his third volume employed on that ominous subject. How he came to consider geology as a branch of chemistry, he does not inform us, and we cannot conceive; unless it be that, as it forms one of the subjects on which he lectures, he thought it would be a convenient article to fill up a vacant corner in his book. He surely was not influenced by the wish to introduce a few miserable looking cuts, purporting to be delineations of Dove-dale, Hawthorn-dean, Staffa, &c.; which, as far as we can perceive, have little more relation to geology than to chemistry.

The most questionable geological doctrine of Mr. Brande is derived from the inflammable nature of the metallic bases of the earths and alkalis, discovered by Sir H. Davy; from which he not only explains the nature of earthquakes and volcanoes, but derives support for the theory of Hutton and Playfair.

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‘ We have only,’ says he, ‘ to *suppose* the access of water to large masses of those peculiar metals which constitute the alkaline and earthy bases, and we are possessed of all that is wanted to produce the tremendous effects of earthquakes and volcanoes ; for what power can resist the expansive force of steam and the sudden evolution of gaseous fluids, accompanied by torrents of the earths in igneous fusion, which such a concurrence of circumstances would give rise to, and which are the actual concomitants of volcanic eruptions ?’ —

‘ The metals of the earths are equal to the production of all these complicated and apparently incompatible effects, and these and water are the sole agents required.’

This is all very good as a matter of fancy, but it is nothing more than fancy ; for there is not a shadow of proof that these metallic bases of the earths are to be found in quantities in the interior of the globe. As far as we know, indeed, none of them have ever been detected in any part of the earth ; and the theorist must be very hard pressed who would draw his chief proofs from so *groundless* a supposition as this. It is no argument with us that, if these metallic bases were there, the phenomena of volcanoes and earthquakes would follow ; we must have positive and not negative proofs for a foundation ; and in default of these we must rank Mr. Brande, Dr. Knight, and other abettors of the theory, in the same scale with Burnet and Buffon.

Altogether, the Professor is a very pleasing philosopher in his way ; and we hope that, before long, he will again afford us an opportunity of introducing him to our readers.

ART. XI. *The Ayrshire Legatees ; or, the Pringle Family.* 12mo. pp. 303. Edinburgh, Blackwood ; London, Cadell. 1821.

ART. XII. *Annals of the Parish ; or, the Chronicle of Dalmailing ; during the Ministry of the Rev. Micah Balwhidder.* Written by Himself. Arranged and edited by the Author of “ *The Ayrshire Legatees,*” &c. 12mo. pp. 400. Edinburgh, Blackwood ; London, Cadell. 1821.

By some perverse destiny, it was our fate to fall into contact with a work intitled “ *The Earthquake,*” which was announced to be written by the author of “ *The Ayrshire Legatees ;*” and never was our patience so ill requited as by those three volumes of dullness and extravagance. The publications before us, however, are of so much higher an order, that we cannot believe them to be derived from the same pen ; and we must caution those who, like ourselves, were entrapped into the reading of “ *The Earthquake,*” not to throw aside the present.

present tales with contempt because they are said to belong to the same family.

In neither of the productions which are the subject of this article, is any novelty of incident or intricacy of plot to be discerned: but they are marked by pleasing pictures of the class of life to which they relate; and they frequently remind us by their phraseology, and other circumstances characteristic of the lowlands, of those exquisite pencillings of nature which abound in the novels of the Waverley school. Indeed, report states the author of them to be nearly allied by marriage to Sir Walter Scott, whose name has always stood so much connected with those strangely fatherless children:—we say strangely, because we should imagine that any man would be proud to own such eminent bantlings of his brain. ‘*The Ayrshire Legatees*,’ though inferior to the ‘*Annals of the Parish*,’ furnish us with several interesting sketches of humble Scottish manners. Doctor Pringle, a minister in the rural village of Garnock, received a letter from India, informing him that his cousin Colonel Armour had died at Hyderabad, and left him his residuary legatee; and the same post brought also letters from the agents of the deceased in London. It was therefore determined that the Pringle family, consisting of the Doctor and his spouse, their daughter Rachael, and their son Andrew, who had been just called to the Scottish bar, should set out for our metropolis, to obtain a settlement with the persons in whose hands their testator’s property was placed. By this slender thread all the incidents and events of the book are connected together. The family, during their journey and on their arrival, keep up a correspondence with their friends in Scotland; and, *vice versâ*, the gazettes of the village are regularly forwarded to the worthy family in London. There is, indeed, something awkward in the contrivance; and the accidents by which the various correspondents of the Pringles always contrive to meet at a stated place and time, to read the letters received from the several branches of that family, are forced and unnatural. Yet we have been much amused by the volume; and beyond amusement works of this kind have no pretensions.

From Edinburgh, the legatees proceeded to London by a Leith smack; and young Mr. Pringle gives an amusing sketch of the voyage and its adventures to the Rev. Charles Snodgrass, at Garnock, his father’s *locum tenens* in the pulpit. Some of the letters remind us, though faintly perhaps, of the humour of Humphrey Clinker; and considerable *naïveté* distinguishes several of the remarks of the worthy incumbent of Garnock to his friend Mr. Micklewham, schoolmaster and

session-

session-clerk of that place. — On their arrival in London, the affair of the legacy goes on well, though slowly; and the *residue* being likely to prove of very large amount, we find traits of unaffected benevolence contained in one of the Doctor's letters which are very pleasing:

'As there is a prospect now of a settlement of the legacy business, I wish you to take a step over to the banker, and he will give you ten pounds, which you will administer to the poor, by putting a twenty-shilling note in the plate on Sunday, as a public testimony from me of thankfulness for the hope that is before us; the other nine pounds you will quietly, and in your own canny way, divide after the following manner, letting none of the partakers thereof know from what other hand than the Lord's the help comes, for indeed from whom but HIS does any good befall us!

You will give to auld Mazy Eccles ten shillings. She's a carefu' creature, and it will go as far with her thrift as twenty will do with Effy Hopkirk; so you will give Effy twenty. Mrs. Binacle, who lost her husband, the sailor, last winter, is, I am sure, with her two sickly bairns, very ill off; I would therefore like if you will lend her a note, and ye may put half a crown in the hand of each of the poor weans for a playock, for she's a proud spirit, and will bear much before she complain. Thomas Dowy has been long unable to do a turn of work, so you may give him a note too. I promised that donsie body, Willy Shackle, the betherel, that when I got my legacy, he should get a guinea, which would be more to him than if the Colonel had died at home, and he had had the howking of his grave; you may therefore, in the mean time, give Willy a crown, and be sure to warn him well no to get fou with it, for I'll be very angry if he does. But what in this matter will need all your skill, is the giving of the remaining five pounds to auld Miss Betty Peerie; being a gentlewoman both by blood and education, she's a very slimmer affair to handle in a doing of this kind. But I am persuaded she's in as great necessity as many that seem far poorer, especially since the muslin flowering has gone so down. Her bits of brats are sairly worn, though she keeps out an apparition of gentility. Now, for all this trouble, I will give you an account of what we have been doing since my last.'

Much of the humour turns, as we might expect, on the simplicity and *provincialism* of the Pringle family. An attempt is also made by 'Andrew, my son,' to delineate several known and living characters, political and literary, with whom he meets, and the introduction of whom into fictitious works we do not approve. The young advocate remarks with peculiar emphasis the difference between the polite circles of Edinburgh and those of London, and we believe that the discrimination is just: but the instrumentality of actual persons was by no means necessary to his purpose, and the freedom

used

used with some of them can scarcely be justified: while others, as in the case of Mr. Charles Grant, will feel gratified by the tribute paid to their merits.

The following specimen of Mrs. Pringle, from a letter to her mantua-maker at Irvine, will remind the reader of his old friend Tabitha Bramble in Humphrey Clinker:

‘ Since the King’s burial we have been to see the play, where the leddies were all in deep murning; but excepting that some had black gum-floors on their heads, I saw leetil for admiration — only that bugles, I can ashure you, are not worn at all this season; and surely this murning must be a vast detromint to bizness — for where there is no verietie, there can be but leetil to do in your line. But one thing I should not forget, and that is, that in the vera best houses, after tea and coffee after dinner, a cordial dram is handed about; but likewise I could observe, that the fruit is not set on with the cheese, as in our part of the country, but comes, after the cloth is drawn, with the wine; and no such a thing as a punch-bowl is to be heard of within the four walls of London. Howsomever what I principally notised was, that the tea and coffee is not made by the lady of the house, but out of the room, and brought in without sugar or milk, on servors, every one helping himself, and only plain flimsy loaf and butter is served — no such thing as short-bread, seed-cake, bun, marmlet, or jeelly to be seen, which is an okonomical plan, and well worthy of adaptation in ginteel families with narrow incomes, in Irvine or elsewhere.

‘ But when I tell you what I am now going to say, you will not be surprizt at the great wealth in London. I paid for a bum-beseen* gown, not a bit better than the one that was made by you that the sore calamity befell, and no so fine neither, more than three times the price; so you see, Miss Nanny, if you were going to pouse your fortune, you could not do better than pack up your ends and your awls and come to London. But ye’re far better at home — for this is not a town for any creditable young woman like you, to live in by herself, and I am wearying to be back, though its hard to say when the Doctor will get his counts settlet. I wish you, howsomever, to mind the patches for the bed-cover that I was going to patch, for a licht afternoon seam, as the murning for the King will no be so general with you, and the spring fashons will be coming on to help my gathering — so no more at present from your friend and well-wisher,

‘ JANET PRINGLE.’

We cannot omit the sketches of Scottish society which follow, in a scene that occurred after a letter from Miss Rachael Pringle had been read.

“ ‘ Rachel had ay a gude roose of hersel’,” said Becky Glibbans, as Miss Isabella concluded. In the same moment, Mr. Snodgrass

* This *bumbeseen* has often been seen before, — as well as behind. took

took his leave, saying to Mr. Micklewham, that he had something particular to mention to him. "What can it be about?" inquired Mrs. Glibbans at Mr. Craig, as soon as the helper and schoolmaster had left the room; "do you think it can be concerning the Doctor's resignation of the parish in his favour?" — "Heh, waird," interposed Mrs. Craig, before her husband could reply, "it wi'na be wi' my gude will that he shall come in upon us — a bridefa' wight, whose saft words, and a' his politness, are but lip-deep; na, na, Mrs. Glibbans, we maun hae another on the leet forbye him." — "And wha would ye put on the leet noo, Mrs. Craig, you that's sic a judge?" said Mrs. Glibbans, with the most inefable consequentiality. — "I'll be for young Mr. Dirlton, who is baith a sappy preacher of the word, and a substantial hand at every kind of civility." — "Young Dirlton! — young Deevilton!" cried the orthodox Deborah of Irvine; "a fallow that knows no more of a gospel-dispensation than I do of the Arian heresy, which I hold in utter abomination. No, Mrs. Craig, you have a godly man for your husband — a sound and true follower; tread ye in his footsteps, and no try to set up yoursel' on points of doctrine. But it's time, Miss Mally, that we were taking the road; Becky and Miss Isabella, make yourselves ready. Noo, Mrs. Craig, ye'll no be a stranger; you see I have no been lang of coming to give you my countenance; but, my leddy, ca' canny, it's no easy to carry a fu' cup; ye hae gotten a great gift in your gudeman. Mr. Craig, I wish you a good night; I would fain have stopped for your evening exercise, but Miss Mally was beginning, I saw, to weary — so good night; and, Mrs. Craig, ye'll take tent of what I have said — it's for your gude." So exeunt Mrs. Glibbans, Miss Mally, and the two young ladies. "Her bark's war than her bite," said Mrs. Craig, as she returned to her husband, who felt already some of the ourie symptoms of a henpecked destiny.

Miss Rachael, being married to a Capt. Sabre, goes with him and her brother to France; and the Doctor, having acquired full possession of his legacy, returns with his "gude wife" to Garnock, where his reception is thus described:

Mr. Snodgrass, after enjoying his dinner-society with Miss Mally and Miss Isabella, thought it necessary to dispatch a courier, in the shape of a bare-footed servant lass, to Mr. Micklewham, to inform the elders that the Doctor was expected home in time for tea, leaving it to their discretion either to greet his safe return at the manse, or in any other form or manner that would be most agreeable to themselves. These important news were soon diffused through the clachan. Mr. Micklewham dismissed his school an hour before the wonted time, and there was a universal interest and curiosity excited, to see the Doctor coming home in his own coach. All the boys of Garnock assembled at the braehead which commands an extensive view of the Kilmarnock road, the only one from Glasgow that runs through the parish; the wives with their sucklings were seated on the large stones

stones at their respective door-cheeks ; while their cats were calmly reclining on the window soles. The lassie weans, like clustering bees, were mounted on the carts that stood before Thomas Biripenny the vintner's door, churming with anticipated delight ; the old men took their stations on the dike that incloses the side of the vintner's kail-yard ; and "a batch of wabster lads," with green aprons and thin yellow faces, planted themselves at the gable of the malt kiln, where they were wont, when trade was better, to play at the hand-ball ; but poor fellows, since the trade fell off, they have had no heart for the game, and the vintner's half-mutchkin stoups glitter in empty splendour unrequired on the shelf below the brazen sconce above the bracepiece, amidst the idle pewter pepper-boxes, the bright copper tea-kettle, the coffee-pot that has never been in use, and lids of sauce-pans, that have survived their principals, — the wonted ornaments of every trig change-house kitchen.

' The season was far advanced ; but the sun shone at his setting with a glorious composure, and the birds in the hedges and on the boughs were again gladdened into song. The leaves had fallen thickly, and the stubble-fields were bare, but Autumn, in many-coloured tartan-plaid, was seen still walking with matronly composure in the woodlands, along the brow of the neighbouring hills.

' About half-past four o'clock, a movement was seen among the callans at the braehead, and a shout announced that a carriage was in sight. It was answered by a murmuring response of satisfaction from the whole village. In the course of a few minutes the carriage reached the turnpike — it was of the darkest green and the gravest fashion, — a large trunk, covered with Russian matting and fastened on with cords, prevented from chafing it by knots of straw rope, occupied the front, — behind, other two were fixed in the same manner, the lesser of course uppermost ; and deep beyond a pile of light bundles and band-boxes, that occupied a large portion of the interior, the blithe faces of the Doctor and Mrs. Pringle were discovered. The boys huzzaed, the Doctor flung them penny-pieces, and the mistress baubees.

' As the carriage drove along, the old men of the dike stood up and reverently took off their hats and bonnets. The weaver lads gazed with a melancholy smile ; the lassies on the carts clapped their hands with joy ; the women on both sides of the street acknowledged the recognizing nods ; while all the village dogs, surprised by the sound of chariot-wheels, came baying and barking forth, and sent off the cats that were so doucely sitting on the window soles, clambering and scampering over the roofs in terror of their lives.

' When the carriage reached the manse-door, Mr. Snodgrass, the two ladies, with Mr. Micklewham, and all the elders except Mr. Craig, were there ready to receive the travellers. But over this joy of welcoming we must draw a veil ; for the first thing that the Doctor did, on entering the parlour and before sitting down, was to return thanks for his safe restoration to his home and people.'

From these extracts, it will be seen that this little performance is not likely to disappoint the reader. Its scope indeed is limited, and its pretensions are humble: but it manifests much fidelity to truth and nature in the series of sketches which it exhibits; and if it contains nothing to "elevate and surprize," the precept of good sense and taste, "*sint proxima veris*," has been strictly observed.

Of the 'Annals of the Parish,' it will have been perceived that we are inclined to think still more favourably. The traits of national delineation are broader and more distinct in the memoirs of Mr. Balwhidder than in those of the Pringle family; and a simplicity of character and quaintness of humour distinguish the principal personage, which occasionally call our worthy friend Parson Adams to our recollection. The hint, however, of the piece was no doubt supplied by the well-known "Memoirs of P. P. Parish Clerk;" and the harmless self-importance of such a personage, and the amusing solemnity with which he registers the little chronicles of the village, are closely copied from that exquisite performance. In general satire, indeed, the present work falls very short of its prototype: but it more than atones for the deficiency by those occasional strokes of tenderness and feeling, which are no where to be found in the sketch of Pope and Arbuthnot.

'In the same year and on the same day of the month, in which his Majesty King George III. of the name came to his crown and kingdom, I was settled,' says the Rev. Micah Balwhidder, 'as the minister of Dalmailing.' He then proceeds to tell us, with the like peculiar egotism, that he was obliged by age and growing infirmities to retire from his pulpit at the very period when the same monarch was 'set by as a precious vessel, which had received a crack or a flaw.' His induction, however, was violently opposed by the parishioners: for, being 'put in by the patron,' the hearts of the people were stirred into strife against him: they even nailed up the kirk-door, and he was obliged with his friends to get in at the window: — but his good humour and integrity soon subdued their resistance; and, in spite of so ill-omened an inauguration, his ministry was long, peaceful, and popular. We need not attempt to analyze the story, which is by far too scattered and desultory for that purpose: but we shall occasionally present a few of the portraits drawn by this entertaining writer, in order to do justice to his powers, which are by no means of a secondary order.

The worthy minister is related to have taken unto himself three wives, in due succession, during the course of his pilgrimage: the first being his cousin, Miss Betty Lanskaw.

It

‘It was more out of a compassionate habitual affection, than the passion of love. We were brought up by our grandmother in the same house, and it was a thing spoken of from the beginning, that Betty and me were to be married. So when she heard that the Laird of Breadland had given me the presentation of Dalmailing, she began to prepare for the wedding. And as soon as the placing was well over and the manse in order, I gaed to Ayr, where she was, and we were quietly married, and came home in a chaise, bringing with us her little brother Andrew, ~~that died in the East Indies~~, and he lived and was brought up by us.’

This lady being “called into heaven,” and a decent interval having elapsed, he is consoled by uniting himself in marriage to the notable Miss Lizy Kibbock, which turned out a thrifty and profitable union. She sent her butter on the market-days to Irville, and her cheese from time to time to Mrs. Firlot’s at Glasgow; and ‘they were both so well made that our dairy,’ he says, ‘was just a coining of money, insomuch that after the first year we had the whole tot of my stipend to put into the bank.’

The parish now advances rapidly to prosperity; and the incident of a new road is solemnly recorded. Lord Eglesham came from London to see the new lands which he had bought in Dalmailing; and his Lordship being obliged one day to pass ‘through the clachan when all the middens were gathered out reeking and sappy in the middle of the causeway,’ a long string of coal-carts came in at the other end of the lane. Every body came out to lend a hand, — but the Earl’s horses gave a sudden ‘loup,’ and ‘couped’ the coach into the ‘very scent-bottle of the whole commodity,’ which made him, says Mr. Balwhidder, ‘go perfect mad, and he swore like a trooper that he would get an act of parliament to put down the nuisance.’ This was the origin of the new trust-road.

The author has displayed exquisite pathos, we think, in relating the death of Nanse Banks, the school-mistress, which happened about the same time.

‘She had been long in a weak and frail state, but, being a methodical creature, still kept on the score, laying the foundation for many a worthy wife and mother. However, about the decline of the year her complaints increased, and she sent for me to consult about her giving up the school; and I went to see her on a Saturday afternoon, when the bit lassies, her scholars, had put the house in order, and gone home till the Monday.’

She was sitting in the window-nook, reading *The Word* to herself, when I entered, but she closed the book, and put her spectacles in for a mark when she saw me; and, as it was expected I would come, her easy chair, with a deep cover, had been set out for me by the scholars, by which I discerned that

there was something more than common to happen, and so it appeared when I had taken my seat.

"Sir," said she, "I hae sent for you on a thing troubles me sairly. I have warsled with poortith in this shed, which it has pleased the Lord to allow me to possess, but my strength is worn out, and I fear I maun yield in the strife;" and she wiped her eye with her apron. I told her, however, to be of good cheer; and then she said, "that she could no longer thole the din of the school, and that she was weary, and ready to lay herself down to die whenever the Lord was pleased to permit. But," continued she, "what can I do without the school; and, alas! I can neither work nor want; and I am wae to go, on the Session, for I am come of a decent family." I comforted her, and told her, that I thought she had done so much good in the parish, that the Session was deep in her debt, and that what they might give her was but a just payment for her service. "I would rather, however, Sir," said she, "try first what some of my auld scholars will do, and it was for that I wanted to speak with you. If some of them would but just, from time to time, look in upon me, that I may not die alane; and the little pick and drap that I require would not be hard upon them — I am more sure that in this way their gratitude would be no discredit, than I am of having any claim on the Session."

As I had always a great respect for an honest pride, I assured her that I would do what she wanted, and accordingly, the very morning after, being Sabbath, I preached a sermon on the helplessness of them that have no help of man, meaning aged single women, living in garret-rooms, whose forlorn state, in the gloaming of life, I made manifest to the hearts and understandings of the congregation, in such a manner that many shed tears, and went away sorrowful.

Having thus roused the feelings of my people, I went round the houses on the Monday morning, and mentioned what I had to say more particularly about poor old Nanse Banks, the schoolmistress, and truly I was rejoiced at the condition of the hearts of my people. There was a universal sympathy among them; and it was soon ordered that, what with one and another, her decay should be provided for. But it was not ordained that she should be long heavy on their good will. On the Monday the school was given up, and there was nothing but wailing among the bit lassies, the scholars, for getting the vacance, as the poor things said, because the mistress was going to lie down to dee. And, indeed, so it came to pass, for she took to her bed the same afternoon, and, in the course of the week, dwindled away, and slippet out of this howling wilderness into the kingdom of heaven, on the Sabbath following, as quietly as a blessed saint could do. And here I should mention, that the Lady Macadam, when I told her of Nanse Banks's case, inquired if she was a sniffer, and, being answered by me that she was, her Ladyship sent her a pretty French enamel box full of Macabaw, a fine snuff that she had in a bottle; and, among the Macabaw, was found a guinea, at the bottom of the

box, after Nanse Banks had departed this life, which was a kind thing of Lady Macadam to do.

Proceeding to a different scene, we could not forbear from laughing at the village-incident recorded in the sixteenth year of Mr. Balwhidder; and who that is conversant with the petty passions of real life will fail to recognize the faithfulness of the picture?

It happened that Miss Betty Wadrife, the daughter of an heritor, had been on a visit to some of her friends in Edinburgh; and, being in at Edinburgh, she came out with a fine mantle, decked and adorned with many a ribbon-knot, such as had never been seen in the parish. The Lady Macadam, hearing of this grand mantle, sent to beg Miss Betty to lend it to her, to make a copy for young Mrs. Macadam. But Miss Betty was so vogue with her gay mantle, that she sent back word, it would be making it o'er common; which so nettled the old courtly lady, that she vowed revenge, and said the mantle would not be long seen on Miss Betty. Nobody knew the meaning of her words; but she sent privately for Miss Sabrina, the schoolmistress, who was ay proud of being invited to my Lady's, where she went on the Sabbath night to drink tea, and read Thomson's Seasons and Harvey's Meditations for her Ladyship's recreation. Between the two, a secret plot was laid against Miss Betty and her Edinburgh mantle; and Miss Sabrina, in a very treacherous manner, for the which I afterwards chided her severely, went to Miss Betty, and got a sight of the mantle, and how it was made, and all about it, until she was in a capacity to make another like it; by which my Lady and her, from old silk and satin negligées which her Ladyship had worn at the French court, made up two mantles of the self-same fashion as Miss Betty's, and, if possible, more sumptuously garnished, but in a flagrant fool way. On the Sunday morning after, her Ladyship sent for Jenny Gaffaw, and her daft daughter Meg, and shewed them the mantles, and said she would give them half a-crown if they would go with them to the kirk, and take their place in the bench beside the elders, and, after worship, walk home before Miss Betty Wadrife. The two poor natural things were just transported with the sight of such bravery, and needed no other bribe; so, over their bits of ragged duds, they put on the pageantry, and walked away to the kirk like peacocks, and took their place on the bench, to the great diversion of the whole congregation.

I had no suspicion of this, and had prepared an affecting discourse about the horrors of war, in which I touched, with a tender hand, on the troubles that threatened families and kindred in America; but all the time I was preaching, doing my best, and expatiating till the tears came into my eyes, I could not divine what was the cause of the inattention of my people. But the two vain hayerels were on the bench under me, and I could not see them; where they sat, spreading their feathers and picking their wings, stroking down and setting right their finery, with such an

air as no living soul could see and withstand; while every eye in the kirk was now on them, and now at Miss Betty Wadrife, who was in a worse situation than if she had been on the stool of repentance.

Grievously grieved with the little heed that was paid to my discourse, I left the pulpit with a heavy heart; but when I came out into the kirk-yard, and saw the two antics linking like ladies, and aye keeping in the way before Miss Betty, and looking back and around in their pride and admiration, with high heads and a wonderful pomp; I was really overcome, and could not keep my gravity; but laughed loud out among the graves, and in the face of all my people, who, seeing how I was vanquished in that ungoverned moment by the enemy, made a universal and most unreserved breach of all decorum, at which Miss Betty, who had been the cause of all, ran into the first open door, and almost fainted away with mortification.

This affair was regarded by the elders as a sinful trespass on the orderliness that was needful in the Lord's house, and they called on me at the Manse that night, and said it would be a guilty connivance, if I did not rebuke and admonish Lady Macadam of the evil of her way; for they had questioned daft Jenny, and had got at the bottom of the whole plot and mischief. But I, who knew her Ladyship's light way, would fain have had the elders to overlook it, rather than expose myself to her tantrums; but they considered the thing as a great scandal, so I was obliged to conform to their wishes. I might, however, have as well stayed at home, for her Ladyship was in one of her jocular humours when I went to speak to her on the subject; and it was so far from my power to make a proper impression on her of the enormity that had been committed, that she made me laugh, in spite of my reason, at the fantastical drollery of her malicious prank on Miss Betty Wadrife.

With the gradual progress of civilization in the village, evils also grew up to which it had heretofore been a stranger; and, among others, the year 1776 was marked by the first *reviving party* that had been seen in that neighbourhood.

'The listing,' says the worthy minister, 'was a catching distemper;' the mischiefs of which he relates, and depicts in a pathetic discourse from the pulpit. — The next year is an important epoch. The American war had excited a strong interest to hear of what was going on in the world; and Mr. Balwhidder, no longer contented with the news of the month in the *Scots Magazine*, joined with his father-in-law for a newspaper twice a week from Edinburgh. — The consequences of smuggling are then introduced; and we have the melancholy story of the Earl of Eglintoun, who was killed by Mungo Campbell the exciseman, in a sudden scuffle in 1769, veiled under the names of Lord Eglesham and Mungo Argyle.

It is impossible to omit the death and burial of poor Jenny Gallow, the daft woman already mentioned:

‘Shortly

Shortly after the news of the peace, (1783,) an event at which all gave themselves up to joy, a thing happened among us, that at the time caused much talk; but although very dreadful, was yet not so serious, some how or other, as such an awsome doing should have been. Poor Jeriny Gaffaw happened to take a heavy cold, and soon thereafter died. Meg went about from house to house, begging dead-clothes, and got the body straightened in a wonderful decent manner, with a plate of earth and salt placed upon it—an admonitory type of mortality and eternal life, that has ill-advisedly gone out of fashion. When I heard of this, I could not but go to see how a creature that was not thought possessed of a grain of understanding, could have done so much herself. On entering the door I beheld Meg sitting with two or three of the neighbouring kimmers, and the corpse laid out on a bed. "Come awa, Sir," said Meg, "this is an altered house; they're gane that keep it in being; but, Sir, we maun a' come to this;—we maun pay the debt o' nature—death is a grim creditor, and a doctor but brittle bail when the hour of reckoning's at hand! What a pity it is, mother, that you're now dead, for here's the minister come to see you! O, Sir, but she would have had a proud heart to see you in her dwelling, for she had a genteel tarn, and would not let me, her only daughter, mess or mell we the dathron lassies of the clachan. Ay, ay, she brought me up with care, and educated me for a lady: nae coarse work darkened my filly-white hands! But I maun work now, I maun dree the penalty of man."

Having stopped some time, listening to the curious manner-
ing of Meg, I rose to come away, but she laid her hand on my arm, saying, "No, Sir, ye maun taste before ye gang! My mother had aye plenty in her life, nor shall her latter day be needy."

Accordingly, Meg, with all the due formality common on such occasions, produced a bottle of water and a dram-glass, which she filled and tasted, then presented to me, at the same time offering me a bit of bread on a slate. It was a consternation to every body how the daft creature had learnt all the ceremonies, which she performed in a manner past the power of pen to describe, making the solemnity of death, by her strange mockery, a kind of merriment, that was more painful than sorrow; but some spirits are gifted with a faculty of observation, that, by the strength of a little fancy, enables them to make a wonderful and truth-like semblance of things and events which they never saw, and poor Meg seemed to have this gift.

Mr. Cayenne, a choleric, stormy, and irreligious man, but on the whole a benevolent character, is exceedingly well drawn, and recorded as the institutor of the cotton-manufacture in Dalmailing: but we must reprove the wanton introduction of his profane speech, in relating the incident of an accusation against two reformers. (P. 280.)

We wish that we had room for one extract more, which should be the simple and affecting delineation of the influence

of love over the poor ignorant creature, Meg Gaffaw, with whom and her mother Jenny the reader has already been made acquainted: but we cannot afford space for the relation.

A variety of interesting and pleasing characters successively "come like shadows, so depart," in this little picture of a Scottish village; and a quaint and measured pleasantry runs through the whole. They who are touched and charmed with the portraiture of humble life, which are to be found in the pages of Crabbe, will not despise the efforts of this agreeable writer: for, though the Annals of the Parish contain no high and eventful vicissitudes to arouse and awaken the curiosity of the reader, and do not agonize him with suspense or incite to grand and noble action by examples of stupendous daring and heroic virtue, yet they will at least soothe him by the images which they reflect of domestic peace and unambitious goodness;—by faithful representations of those quiet and unobtrusive characters, which, content

"Along the cool sequestered vale of life
To keep the noiseless tenor of their way,"

not unfrequently exhibit lessons more durable and effective than instances drawn from the splendid scenes of fashion, notoriety, and grandeur.

ART. XIII. *The Second Tour of Dr. Syntax*, in search of Consolation; a Poem. Royal 8vo. (With 24 Coloured Plates.) 17. 1s. Boards. Ackermann. 1820.

ART. XIV. *The Third Tour of Dr. Syntax*, in search of a Wife. A Poem. Royal 8vo. (With 25 Coloured Plates.) 17. 1s. Boards. Ackermann. 1821.

FEW remarks, even among those which have been made on men and manners by the first moral poet of Rome, are so important, because so extensively applicable, as the following:

"*Nec luisse pudet, sed non incidere ludum.*"

Every day furnishes reason to the reflecting scholar to feel the wisdom of this sentiment, and to appreciate the neatness of its expression. Excess in amusement is the great beginning of bad habits of all kinds; and, if we proceed from life to literature, how many instances do we daily see of authors whose first and shorter levities would have been forgiven and forgotten, had they not transgressed as they advanced all the limits of sensible toleration, and tarnished their brief and early honours with long and late inferiority of wit.

The

The observation may be extended even to the ignoble art of puffing. A little modest impudence in this way is very generally overlooked: but who, in our æra and our altered state of manners, can suffer the same liberties of self-applause which we allow to an Ovid or a Lucan? We say nothing of the equality of modern genius with that of these worthies; but (thanks to a better creed, and nobler motives of action) there is no danger of a later poet, who approaches within miles of his humblest predecessors, being bold enough to talk of himself as they have done.

We have rambled into this little digression while taking these Second and Third Tours in company with Dr. Syntax. It would grieve us to be too severe on an established favourite with a certain class of readers: more especially one who has passed (if we are rightly informed) a long life in the service of literature; and some of whose earlier productions manifest a different degree of poetical power from that of the works before us. The truth is, however, that a poet who *professes* to be attended by a painter, and to be furnishing subjects for the pencil in the whole of his efforts, must be too often destitute of the ideal charm of composition, and of all that delicate excellence which answers to such a feeling. Comparatively, he can have to expatiate in but a narrow intellectual world of his own creating, peopling, and endowing; for detached forms and petty peculiarities must be the chief food of his imagination. The *sign-post* must be constantly swinging before his eyes, and creaking in his ears; the *sign-post* on which he is to enable his brother Pallet to immortalize the *millington* Life-guardsmen of Waterloo, or a review of all the Life-Guards by his Majesty the King.

If these observations be appropriate to the limited task of the poet who *ex professo* leads the painter, what must be their justice of application to him who follows the painter? This, we are willing to imagine, has not often been the case, where any due talent has existed to rescue the nobler workman of the two from this subserviency. Yet we fear, from the following paragraph, that Dr. Syntax must plead guilty to the charge of playing second fiddle in the most considerable portion of his labours; though Mr. Rowlandson has so admirably (on many occasions at least) played the first, that the poetical pride of his coadjutor, of whatever quality it may be, must have been the less painfully wounded:

The Second Tour is, like the former one, a work of suggestions from the plates by Mr. Rowlandson, though not with such entire reserve as the first. Some few of the subjects may have been influenced by hints from me, and I am willing to suppose that

that such are the least amusing of them. — For the sake of my readers I might have wished for more time than was allowed me, and, for my own sake, that I had more strength. — But if the work appears to be such as to justify the hope of affording pleasure, apologies are needless; and if such an expectation is doubtful, they are impertinent.

The Author.

This paragraph, coupled with the information given in a few previous lines, that the author is an octogenarian, must greatly check the severity of criticism. We have, in fact, two obvious claims before us on such occasions; and to reconcile their respective weight, and impartially to strike the balance between them, is a task of no easy execution. While, however, we pay due respect to the former merits of an experienced writer, we must not forget the contending duty which we owe to our readers in the existing case; and we must acknowledge that a large part of both these volumes of the Tour of Syntax does remind us, in its diffuseness, and in its dilating and diluting properties, of that great master of feeble amplification, our noble Secretary for Foreign Affairs. Much of Dr. Syntax, indeed, is nothing more than Lord Castlereagh in verse; though it would be injustice to *the poet* not to allow that he far excels his prototype *the patriot*, in the quality of clearness and intelligibility. The effusions of the one form a natural though shallow lake, and perspicuous as superficial: — those of the other are the wishy-washy redundancies of a turbid canal, that oozes over its banks at every broken barrier of grammar and common sense.

With these drawbacks, which we have been compelled to make, we should be glad to indulge our inclination in yielding a smile or two of good-humoured applause to the easy labours of the poet, as well as to those more finished exertions of the painter, in these joint publications. Yet we are forced, at the very threshold of the Second Tour, to make an inauspicious stumble. Whether his brother-painter or Dr. Syntax himself suggested the subject of the death-bed, (page 10.) it is an unfeeling representation, and is sporting with matters wholly unfit for such levity. This, we are willing to think, can be no sin of *poetry*, but must be *the camel's hair*; though the versification of this unworthy scene is but too well suited to the design. "*Ut pictura poesis*" (from the Doctor's own motto) may be most seriously and truly said of it.

Having now, we trust, fulfilled *all* that was required of us in the way of censure, and with no undue severity; — having admonished all future pictorial and poetical co-operators not to abuse their double means of giving delight; — the painter

TO

to be cautious in the choice of his own subjects, and the poet to remember the dignity of *his* art in all that he delineates with his mind's eye for the use of the camel's hair * ; — we may proceed, uninterruptedly, to the remainder of our travels with the learned and affable yet ludicrous Syntax.

We shall adopt a species of *Sortes Syntaxiana*, or, in plain English, shall dip into the second volume at random ; — a mode of judging which cannot be considered as unfair in a work that presents so very level a surface, and is so like in one part of it to every other :

‘ TOUR THE SECOND.

‘ *Dr. Syntax loses his Wig.*

‘ The Doctor now was seen to clamber
Up a rude stair-case to his chamber,
Where by the day's fatigue oppress'd,
He said his prayer and sunk to rest :
But e'er an hour or two were gone,
About the time the clock struck one,
A bustling noise his slumbers broke,
He snorted, started, and awoke.
Recov'ring then from his surprize,
He shook his head and rubb'd his eyes.
The cloudless Cynthia glist'ning bright,
Cast o'er the room its borrow'd light ;
And, as her silver beams she threw,
Expos'd all round him to his view.
He thought he saw a troop of cats,
But it appear'd that they were rats,
Who seem'd all frisking, quite at home,
In playing gambols round the room.
If they were fighting or were wooing,
He could not tell what they were doing,
But now it was his serious aim,
To terminate the noisome game ;
For to these rav'nous creatures, he
Had a deep-felt antipathy :
Nor would he dare to venture forth
Unclad, for half that he was worth.
He hiss'd and hooted, though in vain ;
They fled, but soon returned again.
To drive away this daring crew,
He with great force, his pillow threw ;
But soon he saw them mock and scout it,
Running around and all about it.
The bolster follow'd, and a stool
Was sent their furious feats to cool,

* Dr. Syntax, ‘ in the wrong Lodging-house,’ vol. iii., violates this rule.

And

And as a kinsman aids his brother,
 The shoes soon follow'd one another.
 The night-cap too now left his head;
 In vain the missile weapon fled;
 In short the Muse's tongue is tied
 To tell all that he threw beside.
 — At length his wonted courage came,
 Resentment did his blood inflame;
 Nay he resolv'd to cut all short,
 And in his shirt to spoil the sport:
 But that the vermin might not wound him,
 He strove to wrap the curtain round him.
 The curtain which by time was worn,
 Soon in a mighty rent was torn;
 By his main force the tester shook,
 And boxes fill'd with caps forsook
 The place where through the week they slept,
 And were for Sunday fin'ry kept;
 With hats and ribbons and such geer,
 As make folks gay throughout the year.
 Some fell upon the Doctor's head,
 His figure grac'd, or strew'd the bed;
 While some in millenery shower
 Were scatter'd all around the floor:
 And as they in confusion lay,
 Seem'd to give spirit to the fray.
 Now Molly hearing all this clatter,
 Cry'd, through the key-hole, what's the matter?
 If you are ill, I recommend
 That we should for the Doctor send.
 "— Send some one," Syntax said, "I pray,
 To drive these vermin far away,
 Send me the Doctor, or I'm undone,
 Who made a poor boy May'r of London.
 Send me a cat, whose claws will cure
 The noisome evil I endure.
 With half-a-crown I will reward
 The beast who comes to be my guard."
 Molly ran off, and soon there came
 The ostler, Benedict by name,
 To ease the Doctor of alarm,
 With a fierce puss beneath each arm.
 They soon compos'd this scene of riot;
 And Syntax then repos'd in quiet.
 The morning came, the unconscious Sun
 Display'd what mischief had been done.
 The rats it seems had play'd the rig,
 In tearing up the Doctor's wig.

Mr. Rowlandson's drawing of this scene is very good; and,
 indeed, his views of the interior of rooms shew such an
 increased knowlege of the principles of his art, that we are
 willing

willing to think he must soon grow ashamed of so constant an adaptation of his powers to the inferior departments of caricature.

In the 'Third Tour of Dr. Syntax,' we are not prepared to say so much of the efforts of the painter, because we meet with few, if any, of the well-imagined and carefully executed scenes of the Second Tour. Still we have much to amuse in these pictures; — much to mitigate if not entirely to console the feelings of the purchaser, when he finds the *hiatus* in his purse which the departed guinea, destined to each Tour of Dr. Syntax, has occasioned. He gradually ceases to reflect that a guinea is a coin which, at a late period of our history, was honestly worth twenty-eight shillings; and which (if we calculated on the clearness of the parliamentary reasonings on this subject for a prompt relief) would be likely, ere long, to be of equal value again: — but the æra of Blockade and Monopoly is over for the present; and may it never return, in our times, notwithstanding its *partial* advantages! Hard must be the *national heart* that can wish for it, at the price of war.

Now, where is Dr. Syntax? alas! he is no more! Here we shall drop our *anti-Virgilian* lots; and, having selected one specimen of the humorous from the Third Tour, we shall close our acquaintance with the Doctor.

' *Dr. Syntax received by the Maid instead of the Mistress.*

— In the mean time, the bouncing maid
Was taught the part that should be play'd;
And thus the artful Mistress gave
Th' instruction how she should behave.

"When he shall ask you how you do,
You'll say, I'm well and thank you too.
But beyond this you must not go,
Nor e'er reply but YES or NO."

What other fancies she was told
A few lines onward will unfold.

He enter'd, when with aukward air,
She motion'd him to take a chair,
And, having plac'd it by her side,
He thus began, — she thus replied.

"Ma'am, 'tis an honour you confer," —
She said, — "I'm well and thank you, Sir."

"— I have a letter here to show
From Lady Macnight," — She said, "No."

"— I hope you'll take it not amiss,
If I present it!" — She said, "Yes."

"I'm Doctor Syntax as I live." —

She answer'd with a Negative.

O ho! he thought, but I'll go on,
 For Madam I suppose for fun,
 Is playing an automaton;
 And if that is the Lady's cue,
 I will be somewhat funny too.
 "Madam," he said, "that lovely face
 Seems to invite a soft embrace,
 And if you please;" — She answer'd, "Yes."
 The Doctor therefore took a kiss,
 Which she return'd with such a blow
 As her rude hands could well bestow:
 But while, astonish'd and amaz'd,
 He on the angry figure gaz'd,
 The Lady thought it time to move
 From her snug, hiding-place above:
 Into the room at once she darted;
 The Doctor turn'd around and started,
 And, scarce recov'ring from the slap,
 Sunk unawares in Molly's lap.
 She shov'd him briskly tow'rds the dame,
 Who push'd him back from whence he came,
 And thus, by force of arms uncouth,
 He play'd at to and fro with both;
 Such as a shuttlecock explores,
 Between two active battledores.

The awkwardness of the *Sham-Lady*, in Mr. Rowlandson's picture, is exquisite; and there is certainly much fun in the description.

ART. XV. *A Sermon preached at the Coronation of King George IV. in the Abbey Church of Westminster, July 19. 1821. By Edward, Lord Archbishop of York. Published by His Majesty's special command. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.*

THE prelate who is appointed to preach the usual sermon on the coronation of his sovereign is certainly called to no very desirable or easy task; not desirable, at least, to the man of talents who fears to speak the honest dictates of his mind, nor easy to the man of inferior abilities who knows not how to dignify the nothingness of insipidity, though he can avoid the rashness of offence. Indeed it must be difficult for any preacher, on such an occasion, and within the limits of his circumscribed duty, to compose a discourse that shall be argumentative yet concise, energetic yet genteel, admonitory yet complimentary, and not hacknied yet indisputable in its positions. We are not prepared to say, that every reader will allow that his Grace of York has succeeded in vanquishing all these difficulties: but we think that most of his auditors,

ditors, and of those persons who may peruse his sermon in its published state, will ascribe to him a very respectable share of felicity in overcoming many of these obstacles, and will award to him commendation for having proclaimed some sound and wholesome truths, expressed in calm and dignified language.

We are first presented in this discourse with a few suitable general remarks on the importance of the words of David contained in the text, 2 Samuel, xxiii. 3, 4., "*He that ruleth over men must be just, ruling in the fear of God; and he shall be as the light of the morning when the sun riseth, as a morning without clouds;*" after which, the Archbishop proceeds to inquire from these premises, '1st, What are the principles which constitute good government; and, 2dly, What are the effects which it produces.' In stating the most important principles of a good governor, it is alleged with truth, and with a proper application of the text, that the highest is 'the fear of God;' and a compliment is paid to our late venerable sovereign, for having given the example of a religious reign. 'We have seen the just monarch, who ruled us in the fear of God, rewarded with the steady and zealous affections of his people; retaining in his afflictive retirement their unabated reverence, followed to his tomb by their sincere regrets, and beyond it by their grateful recollections.' The hearer's attention is then called to the son and successor of this revered ruler; who is said to be 'not new to the cares and duties of his high station,' but, by 'his steadfastness in the hour of peril,' to have brought to a most glorious conclusion a war that 'threatened our very existence as an independent state;' and, 'in the moderation of his triumph,' to have shewn principles which give us 'reason to anticipate all the blessings of a firm and prudent policy, and to trust that he will place his glory in the moral greatness of his country, that the true interests of the nation will be consulted by a patriot-reign, and the throne established in the hearts of a loyal and happy people.'

It may seem to be an omission in the component parts of this prospective picture, that the religious example of the late King, which has just been eulogized, is not brought forwards as likely to be followed by his successor, nor recommended to his zealous imitation. Yet we had before been most properly reminded that

'No nation can ever be happy at home, or respected abroad, unless its councils and laws are administered by the prudent and the honest, by the moral and the religious: and though virtue and piety have higher rewards than it is in the power of man to bestow,

standing is, in the most essential service which a sovereign can render to a state, to encourage morality and religion by a marked and uniform preference in the distribution of dignity and power. If, indeed, those who surround the throne, and ought to reflect its lustre, if those whose station makes them at once objects of envy and imitation, if such men are worthless or wicked, the influence of their example will extend itself in every direction, and promulgated, originating in this source, will be rapidly diffused through all the gradations of society. —

The ruler who would be just to his people, whilst he approves himself the faithful and zealous guardian of their civil rights, will preserve their morals from the contagion of vice and irreligion, by "ruling in the fear of God;" by withholding his favour from the base and licentious; by exalting the wise and good to distinction and honour; and by exhibiting in his own deportment an example of those virtues which it is his duty to cherish in others; remembering, that his responsibility bears a proportion to the height of his station; and that he who sits on a throne is under peculiar obligations to holiness, as having to answer, at the great tribunal of judgment, not only for his own personal conduct, but for the influence of his manners and actions on the present and future happiness of millions.

In the earlier part of his discourse, the Archbishop observes on the necessity, which the very nature of man creates, of frequently inculcating the benefits of civil government, and the relative duties of sovereign and subject, and he adds; —

The history of the world affords ample proofs in support of this assertion; the records of every nation exhibit the alternate predominance of tyranny and faction. *The spirit of innovation has burst the ties of allegiance under the mildest governments, has proceeded to redress imaginary grievances with bloodshed, and has not stopped in its frantic career till it has subverted the foundations of society, and thrown down the fences by which innocence is protected, and property secured — and tyranny, if it has not spread such wide wasting desolation, has made more frequent inroads on the happiness of men, and practised on their patience every mode of exaction which rapacity could devise, and every species of persecution which cruelty could inflict.*

Nor are these domestic crimes the only calamities which the injustice of rulers has brought upon mankind. How much innocent blood is shed from every corner of the earth against the despotism and ambition of princes; how large a proportion of those wars which have ravaged the world, is to be imputed to the vain glorious wickedness of individuals exalted in power, abusing their sacred trust!

Lamentably true, also, are the following remarks, illustrative of 'the great general principle of good government, universal justice; justice between nation and nation, between man and man, between the sovereign and the people;' — and

we know not any truth more deeply and extensively important, or more imperiously requiring to be frequently proclaimed, and enforced:

'The laws of political justice which should regulate the intercourse of nations, have been so little regarded by those who have directed the councils of powerful kingdoms, that a reader of history might almost imagine that there was one code of morality for nations, and another for individuals. In the transactions of states with each other, the most crooked arts of circumvention have been practised under the name of policy, and the most enormous violence of usurpation, when confirmed by conquest, has been dignified with the character of patriotism.

'But a just ruler will remember, that the principles of equity are exactly the same in public, as in private concerns. *Between those acts of injustice which affect individuals, and those which are often committed against communities, what difference is there, except in the extent of the injury, and, consequently, the magnitude of the guilt?*

Daily experience confirms the validity of this representation, and (we might say) the *strange* necessity for urgently reprobating the notion that seems to prevail, if we argue from effects, that there is one law for an individual and another for a nation, or rather for a government. We fear that the remark might be carried farther; and that we might speak of the existence of the fancy that there is one law for the humble and another for the exalted individual; since we so frequently see immoralities, of various kinds, defended and unpunished among the powerful and the wealthy, which would call the man of an inferior or a middling station to the bar of justice, or exclude him from the countenance and association of his compeers. Even vicious reasoning is employed, fallaciously or unblushingly to support error; *precedent* is quoted for deviations from rectitude; and it is forgotten that the character of a free agent depends on the quality of his acts, and that *one wrong cannot sanctify another*. — Well and forcibly does Dr. Vernon exclaim, in speaking of a community in which the laws of God are set at defiance:

'Such a state may for a time be distinguished by every external mark of prosperity — extended dominion, accumulated wealth, and successful cultivation of the arts — but its prosperity is not happiness: its magnificence and luxury, however imposing, are a poor and inadequate compensation for the absence of mutual confidence and mutual kindness, of temperance and contentment, of the dignity of virtue, and the consolations of religion.'

MONTHLY CATALOGUE

For NOVEMBER, 1821.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 16. *New Sacred Dramas for Young Persons.* 8vo. pp. 172.
Longman and Co. 1820.

The morality of this work is, as we might anticipate, unexceptionable: but the poetry, or the prose, (for we are at a loss to discover which is intended,) is not so faultless. The subjects are the following: Rebekah; Jacob; Joseph; Sampson; Ruth; Jonathan; Esther.

To give our readers an idea of the author's selection of poetical incidents, we will only observe that the beautiful scene in the Bible, in which Rebekah has her first interview with Isaac, is omitted in the first drama! With regard to the execution of the plan, the following specimen will be sufficient:

Esther. In speaking of the noble Vashti, I wished not to excite the anger of the lord my king; all my desire is, that "the words of my mouth and the meditations of my heart be acceptable in the sight," who has raised me to greatness, and exalted me in the eyes of the people.

Ahasuerus. And thou shalt be exalted! Reproof from thee, Queen Esther, is as words of wise and righteous counsel to my heart. Say then, what wilt thou, and what is thy request? speak, for it shall be established.

Esther. Let my gracious lord, and Haman, the glorious ruler of the land, come this day unto the banquet-board.

Ahasuerus. Behold me prepared to accompany thee to the banquet; and under thy influence, Queen Esther, disposed to enjoy the repast thy damsels have prepared. But wherefore hast thou so honourably noticed Haman, and neglected others more competent to devise amusement? He is a very statesman,—the interests of the nation press, as a dead weight upon his heart: to plan, and to digest the good of others, is his highest joy.

Esther. That he has gained the affections of my lord the king, cannot be disputed; and this alone confirms his high deserts. The noble Haman is gentle in greatness, looking with an eye of pity to those less favoured than himself. To the persecuted Jews, he is "as a green olive-tree, fair, and of goodly fruit;" under whose branches they securely rest! The commendable humility with which he sustains his dignities, fills every heart with wonder. In witnessing his virtues, and dwelling constantly dwelling upon their effects, pardon me, my sire, if I have been too officious, or erred in my anxiety, to behold at the banquet, the exalted, the generous friend of the people, whose wisdom is as the sun when it riseth, giving light and glory to a benighted world.

Ahasuerus. Thou hast my fervent thanks, Queen Esther, for thus graciously dwelling upon the virtues of my friend, the man, whose wisdom and application strengthen all our measures. He

is the enlightened minister, the centre from whence our glories emanate.

Such a style as this appears to us more suitable to a panegyric on the noble Secretary for Foreign Affairs than on Haman the Jew: — but *de gustibus non disputandum est*. It may be equally light, appropriate, and eloquent, in the judgment of the author and his friends.

Art. 17. *Fanny*. 8vo. pp. 67. Printed at New York, and re-published in London by Whittakers. 1821.

We have here a trans-Atlantic imitation of *Beppo* and *Don Juan*, though the *ottava rima* is changed for the six-line stanza. The allusions to persons and places, and the satire on the former, are so entirely local, that we can neither appreciate them, nor be interested by them; and both justice and charity, perhaps, should induce us to suppose that, from this circumstance, the poem may have more merit in the eyes of New-York readers than in those of Londoners. Certain it is, however, that we can discover no high beauty in the poetry, nor any great poignancy in the satire; though we have often met with worse versification, particularly from the servile herd of imitators.

The ensuing stanzas may be given as a favorable specimen, and as disentangled from the slight web of the story; which is simply that of a tradesman and his daughter suddenly gaining prosperity, and as rapidly falling to entire ruin:

Ever never walked in Paradise more pure

Than on that morn when Satan played the devil

With her and all her race. A love-sick wooer

Ne'er asked a kinder maiden, or more civil,

Than Cleopatra was to Antony

The day she left him on the Ionian sea.

The serpent — loveliest in his coiled ring,

With eye that charms, and beauty that outvies

The tints of the rainbow — bears upon his sting

The deadliest venom. Ere the dolphin dies

Its hues are brightest. Like an infant's breath

Are tropic winds, before the voice of death

Is heard upon the waters, summoning

The midnight earthquake from its sleep of years,

To do its task of woe. The clouds that fling

The lightning, brighten ere the bolt appears;

The pantings of the warrior's heart are proud

Upon that battle-morn whose night-dews wet his shroud;

The sun is loveliest as he sinks to rest;

The leaves of autumn smile when fading fast;

The swan's last song is sweetest — and the best

Of Meigs's speeches, doubtless, was his last.

And thus the happiest scene, in these my rhymes,

Clos'd with a crash and usher'd in hard times.

Mr. Bristed, whose publications on America have been introduced to our readers, is undignifiedly treated with very little ceremony in this poem.

Art. 18. *Giuseppino, an Occidental Story.* 8vo. pp. 64.
Davison, Lombard Street. 1821.

"Another and another still succeeds," — i. e. *follows*, but not with success. The present Byronian imitator, indeed, is not one of the fortunate few who can tread in the steps of his master and be mistaken for the master himself. Out of 125 stanzas, we have been obliged to read through thirty-eight before we could obtain a glimpse at any story, or plot, on which the writer was bestowing so much prefatory waste; and then we found that this same story was at all points like the Quaker's horse, — very difficult to catch, and when caught not worth having. — His stanza certainly allows him to take great liberties with rhyme, and reason too: but what shall we say to such instances as these?

'That what they left was by each humbler thief *ta'en*,
To put in some new fiction at his leisure;
I found — but guess! — no, you can't guess my grief *ta'en*
At finding, &c.

'Would that our dear ancestresses had been *crazy*,
With some directing kind of *idiosyncrasy*.

'So now to ease your
Doubts regarding my true and argutie observation,
In these lines you peruse its exemplification.'

'In this measure, the lover must whine all his woes;

In this measure the heroine saddens at each; —

In this measure, the hero abuses his foes;

In this measure, when dying delivers his speech; —

In this measure — Oh, murder, how headlong it goes!

It requires most distressing exertion to reach

The decimo-syllabic lines anew: —

And see, poor Pegasus has lost a shoe!

Some of his verses, however, are less exceptionable; — for

instance:

'I recollect, my boyhood loved to pore

On ballad and romaunt; till I was grown

Such an admirer of the days of yore,

I hated every face I looked upon,

Because contemporary chins no more

Displayed such beards as earlier chins had on;

And I regretted much not to have been

Born in an Edward's or a Harry's reign.

But now I've changed my notions; and, indeed,

Bless my good planets, that I live in days

When he who likes may safely wear his head

And carry it to concerts, or to plays,

To hear the Stereum warble, or to read
How Shakspeare thought, and all that Nature says,
In mightiest eloquence, of gesture, mien,
And voice, when fiction's wrought to truth by Keap.

Like such pleasant places, too, as Vauxhall
Where ears drink music, eyes drink brilliant sights,
And mouths drink liquids for which they from box call,
And all is jollity; while numerous lights
Shine so agreeably, around the walks all,
It makes one think of the Arabian Nights,
Where Asiatic gentlemen have found
Almost as pretty places, underground.'—

This is a liberal age, and full of charity,
When mobs may bellow freely against slavery;
When demagogues may rant, for popularity,
Just as they're urged by folly, or by knavery.
Freedom, of yore, could have no sort of parity
With ours, which lets us talk with so much bravery;
Wherefore I like to live at present, rather
Than long before my great-great-grandfather.

We are growing tired of all this trifling, which can have no merit
but such as is derived from novelty and humour; and as, in the
nature of things, novelty cannot attend a host of imitators, so also
humour seems to be denied to them by the nature of man.

Art. 19. *Gordon, a Tale. A Poetical Review of Don Juan.*
8vo. pp. 79. Allman. 1821.

Here is a third in the list, and belonging to the third degree of
comparison: *bad, worse, worst*. Charity is said to "cover a mul-
titude of sins," and surely a multitude of our sins (if unfortunately
they are so numerous) must be expiated by the penance which we
undergo in reading such productions as this! We apprehend that
it is the effort of a very young writer; and we sincerely hope that
he will suffer many, many, suns and moons to rise and set, to grow
and wane, before he re-commits himself to the press, and again
attempts the chair of the critic or the car of the poet. We ap-
plaud his zeal in the cause of morality, but for either his taste or
his verses, "*ah! pardonnez moi; c'est une autre chose.*"—He can-
not even write correct prose. It is observed in the preface that,
'while the sublimity of Lord Byron's intellect transports us with
astonishment, we are, on the other hand, deeply grieved to find he
exerts his powerful talents only to destroy what is beneficial to man
—Morality, *Viewing him and his production in this light has given
birth to the following poem, which is partly a burlesque parody on
the style of Don Juan; partly a sacrifice of praise, offered at the
shrine of talent, and partly arguments proving its immoral ten-
dency: that is, the immoral tendency of talent.*

His piercing eye at once he boldly heaves.

- ' O what a genius does this man possess!
- ' His mind seems formed to tower away above
The ordinary flight of noted men;
He soars beyond our intellectual drove.
- ' His florid pen is dipped, alas! too deep
In vicious sentiments' o'erwhelming ocean;
With rolling rage it crushes in its sweep
Each noble passion and each virtuous notion:
Though Juan is so vicious, it will keep
His present eminence, and great promotion;
So deep in glory has he dipped his pen,
'Twill always be preserved, and read by men.

This is really very courteous, and but a small part of the writer's laudatory offerings: yet we extremely regret to think that Lord Byron will scarcely return the compliment.

' I had just ended what is said above,
The stranger too was just about replying,
My fears and quakings too I felt improve, —
and so do our fears and quakings, if improve be here taken to mean increase, — and to such a degree that we can no longer hold the pen: — but anger sometimes makes the hand quake as much as fear.

Art. 20. *Elegiac Effusion on the Death of Napoleon Buonaparte.*

8vo. pp. 30. Printed at Glasgow.

The purport of this effusion seems to be to lament that Napoleon, while in the splendid career of his success, did not make a better use of the prodigious power which he had gained; that, when finally defeated, he did not die on the field the death of a warrior; and that, when captured, he was doomed to so ignominious and so harsh an exile. The writer appears to mean well, to be a friend only to rational liberty and moral conduct, and not to be destitute of natural powers: but his composition, especially in his lengthy preface, betrays that incorrectness and want of polish which usually mark the man of imperfect education. We copy a few stanzas, which are among the best:

- ' Oh! that in council wise, as brave in war,
Thou'dst cherish'd fond the goddess' heavenly smile,
That Gallia's weal thou might'st not rashly mar,
And her high hope with maddening violence spoil.
- ' Then, might success thy proud and val'rous name
Have in immortal story long enroll'd;
And given thy illustrious deeds to deathless fame,
As conqueror great, high-destin'd and high-soul'd,
- ' Had wisdom's radiance o'er thy prowess shone;
Oh! had the patriot's virtue been thy guide;
Then thou, like bold Columbian Washington,
Hadst been a world's deliverer and pride.

' Oh!

' Oh ! that thy eagle, crushed in battle's deed,
Had different fate bade memory recall !
Oh ! that a fairer fortune had decreed,
Thou shouldst, like martial hero, glorious fall !

It appears that this author formerly published, with a benevolent design, a small poem, intitled "The Calamities of Winter and of War;" of which we spoke with some praise in our Number for December, 1794.

Art. 21. *The Union of the Roses.* A Tale of the Fifteenth Century. In Six Cantos, with Notes. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1821.

Imitation is the curse of English poetry at this period. Just as we begin to feel a reviving hope that the dregs of mimicry have been drained; that the last Byronian has out-Byroned his prototype; and that the last of the "Last Minstrels" has buried himself in the dead ashes of *Walter-Scotticism*; up starts a new candidate for a stale prize, and we are forced back into the tediousness of twenty-times told tales, — into the nausea of numberless and nerveless metrical romances. This remark, varied only according to each fresh sensation of disgust, has worn and wearied ourselves and readers for the last six years; and nothing but an union of the Hercules and Sisyphus in our literary constitution could enable us to

"Roll up, roll on, this everlasting stone,"
and still endure its recoiling and recurring burthen.

"It is an 'Union of the Roses' which we are now to examine. Alas! alas!

"*Urtica proxima sæpe rosa est;*"
and for us, as well as for our country, there are nettles among these roses.

Pray let us request our readers to accept a few of them.

"A courier had, at early dawn,
Disturb'd the quiet of the morn;
His bugle-horn he blew so shrill,
It echoed loud through dale and hill;
Surprised the slumb'ring warder heard,
And quick the drowsy porter stirr'd;
Yet, ere the gates were open'd wide,
Again his horn he loud applied.
Full well his faint and jaded steed
Declared the rider's urgent speed;
He'd spur'd him on through briar and brake,
Nor kept the road which horsemen take.

"Go, say a friend that's staunch and true
Craves instant audience of Fitzhugh;
This in commanding tone he said,
And waved his hand to be obey'd;

Then

Then paced the hall with hasty stride,
 Until Lord Henry sought his side.
 Their courteous greetings o'er, in haste
 The stranger-knight his vest unlaced,
 And said, "These letters which I bear,
 Earl Richmond gave unto my care:
 'Tell him,' said he, 'from Milford bay,
 I and my army wend our way;
 And hope to gain that crown, ere long,
 Richard obtain'd by fraud and wrong.'
 What more his will, those letters say:
 My mission told, I must away;
 My orders will not brook delay:
 Yet ere I go, — to serve my need,
 I crave, my Lord, a fresher steed,
 Of fleetest foot; — for long's the way
 That I must ride ere close of day."

"The swiftest my domains produce,
 I freely give for Richmond's use;
 But, sure of rest you must have need,
 And food, as well as fresher steed."

"Thanks to your courtesy and care,
 Some food I'll take, but must not spare
 A longer time, nor hope for rest
 To visit this too anxious breast,
 Till in my ears the tidings ring,
 That Richmond's earl is England's king."

Amen!

"And Snowdown's knight is Scotland's king!"

The Lady of the Lake.

"*Sic canibus catulos similes, sic matribus hædos*
Norâm — sic parvis componere magna solebam." VIRGIL.

Art. 22. *What have we Got? or, All our Glories: a Poetico-political Morceau. Fragment II.* By *——*——* 8vo. pp. 58. Ilbery. 1821.

This ephemeral squib-writer has fallen off: (see M. R. for October, 1820:) at least, we do not think so well of the present publication as of his previous effort. The fact is that short follies may be tolerated, but long absurdity rouses indignation.

For instance:

A truce to this metaphor, subject and metre,
 If I had a wife (contradictory creature!)
 Which thank God I've not, that I chanced to dislike;
 I wou'd not abuse her, I wou'd not mal-treat her;
 I wou'd not exasperate, nor wou'd I beat her;
 I neither wou'd kick her, nor cuff her, nor strike her;
 I wou'd not mis-call her, mis-lead her, or cheat her;
 Neither wou'd swear by St. Paul nor St. Peter,
 That I never wou'd see her — I never wou'd meet her;

Nor

Nor wou'd I say, "Madam—hang her, do as you like;" —
 But this wou'd I do — I'd behave to her so; I'll say
 No one should find whether I loved her or no; and
 For whereunto, Sir, must you come at last, and
 Supposing you should soundly drub her, bang her,
 When the strong whirlwind of your passion's past,
 Unless, which thou can'st scarcely hope, thou hast
 The luck of evidence enough to hang her? I say
 Why, you're reduced to own she holds you fast;
 In stronger noose in spite of all your anger;
 You think I've left *my subjects* in the lurch; —
 What was I talking off? Oh! of the church.

Bishops two dozen, and two Arch — we've got;
 But then the trans-Tweedane have not got any;
 Ireland makes up, Archbishops four, and Prot-
 —estant and Romish, I know not how many;
 And yet they easily want I'm told in Scot-
 —land our clergy, our liturgy, and litany;
 But what is most exceedingly prodigious,
 The people there are both — *more moral and religious.*

Oh, Beppo, Beppo! "what sins hast thou to answer for!"
 Thou hast misled, by the *ignis fatuus* of thy familiar wit, the pro-
 saic into committing poetry, and the dull into cutting capers!

Art. 23. *The Exiles of Damascus.* By John Cochrane, Esq.
 8vo. pp. 63. Stodarts. 1821.

There is a sufficient reason for every thing; and this "sufficient reason," in the case before us, is the loose *over-lapping* couplet of Lord Byron: who has introduced a species of rhapsodical talking in rhyme, which hundreds have imitated; and the present author among them. In like manner, (as we are often obliged to remind the unobservant and the too indulgent readers of modern poetry,) *Couper* was the "sufficient reason" for the introduction of reams of prose into Parnassus, under the false colours of verse. In like manner, also, Crabbe has dragged up, to the very top of that degraded hill, the most every-day concerns and characters; Scott has enthroned ballads on the epic summit; and Byron has diffused metaphysic melancholy and slipshod mirth over the base, centre, and apex of the hill of the Muses, and even among the clouds that hover over it. Each in its kind, these have been the "sufficient reasons" for hosts of similar writers; and the line seems likely to stretch out to "the crack of doom."

A passage from the ninth volume of Gibbon furnishes the subject of this little poem; which has nothing to distinguish it from myriads of the same genus. For example —

'Twas on that evening, at the gathering time,
 Which led us from our much-lov'd native clime,
 I saw her, by her old weak father's side,
 Standing in patient, fixt serenity,
 While the deep struggling of the passion's tide,
 But

But ill accorded with that altered eye
 Which glanced, in seeming calmness, heedless by —
 Though at her parting, there once seemed a tear
 To dim her blue eyes' brightness — quickly checked
 By her own native feeling — on her cheek,
 That hue of whiteness was not from common sorrow,
 For it rose, convulsive on the instant — settling down
 To more attractive paleness — varied oft
 By the quick flush that marks a withering form,
 And steals our feeling from us — while the cheek,
 All loved to gaze on, looked so beautiful —
 Why did she start — the noblest one till he
 Forsook his country's God and native land;
 The favoured slave amid those slaves to be,
 The next to Caled in the Turkish band:
 Lona his name — 'twas he stood fixedly there,
 By the fine form of that angelic fair,
 Gazing, in silence, on the mournful wreck
 Of his sweet Mora's charms, whose faint fair cheek
 Had grown so cold and delicately weak
 That the last marks of that sad, dread decay
 Which swept all strength, all fire, all life away,
 Were plainly visible — though on her face,
 E'en then its melancholy trait gave place
 To the soft colouring of an evening sky,
 Like those fine tints, as soon to fade and die.'

This is the delicate *Byronian*. Now mark the terrific *ditto*.

But she had fallen — HER IT IS, I MEAN,
 Thro' whom, tho' guiltless, was that deadly scene:
 On the green turf she fell; and her old father bent
 On her deep blue eyes, which there wandering went,
 As if scarce conscious that she felt the pain
 Of that fell dart which wounded not in vain —
 He raised her up — those arms around him fold:
 He kissed that cheek — it was already cold:
 Her lips were quivering; and those lids fell o'er
 The darkened orbs which might unclothe no more;
 While not a word from her faint struggling lips,
 As the black blood, not flows, but *drips*, and *drips*.'

We must make haste to escape from such a *dripping-pan*!

NOVEL.

Art. 24. *Fiddia, or the Prevalence of Fashion*. 12mo. 5s. 6d.
 Boards. Chapple. 1821.

This is a novel directed against gaming and duelling; and the few characters contained in it are not ill drawn, though the whole is composed in homely language. The family circle consists of a father, daughter, and maiden aunt, in the middle rank of society, resident in Yorkshire. The aunt, however, has been to Paris, which is considered as a great event, and has acquired ideas too grand

grand for her station. Her follies are the only amusement brought before the reader, till a grandee in the neighbourhood falls in love with the daughter. The courtship and all the little arrangements put us somewhat in mind of Sir Charles Grandison; and the gentleman appears almost as perfect as that hero of heroes, till, unfortunately paying a visit to London, he meets his old club-companions, and is seduced by them to return to habits of play, though contrary to his principles and sober judgment. After having lost a large sum, and detected the rogueries of his comrades, he is induced to fight a duel, and is killed. — This catastrophe is presented to the reader rather suddenly, and concludes a story in which the good intentions of the writer are not, we are sorry to say, supported by talents equally good. The story is told in an uninteresting manner, and the grammatical errors and vulgarisms throughout the composition are innumerable. In page 96. we read, 'they had just *missed* of her.' In page 41., 'given her by her dear Lady Mary, *as* she talks so much *of*.' In page 57., 'It is a subject *on* which I have never entered *upon* with my child,' &c. &c.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 25. *Dr. Aikin's Annals of the Reign of George III. abridged for the Use of Schools.* 12mo. pp. 297. 4s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1821.

Dr. Aikin's Annals came under our notice in June, 1817. (See M. R. vol. lxxxiii. p. 208.) The present abridgment of them is in general executed with considerable fidelity: but some parts indicate a degree of negligence which we feel ourselves bound to censure. For instance, in the chapter on the year 1783, Mr. Fox's India Bill is introduced in the view of its contents at the head of it, but not a word is mentioned of it in the text; the dismissal of the ministry, which ensued, being stated without any reason or pretext being alleged. Under the year 1802, the loss of the Royal George man of war is recorded with an absolute and important error, whether derived from the original work, or now committed, we cannot say. It is here stated that *all* her crew, consisting of about 900 men, went down in her; whereas, out of that number, above 300 were saved, including several officers. Two or three hundred women were supposed to be lost, in addition to the above number of men. — Making allowance for some few inaccuracies of this sort, we may recommend the volume before us as a compendium well calculated for the instruction of youth.

Art. 26. *Lives of Eminent Scotsmen, By the Society of Ancient Scots, re-established A. D. 1770. Parts I. II. and III. Poets.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. each, sewed. Boys. 1821.

The first part of this work contains some account of James the First, Thomas the Rhymer, Barbour, Wyntoun, Douglas, Ramsay, Meston, Home, Beattie, and Burns. The different lives, we are told, were written by the members of a society which existed as long ago as the reign of James the First of England, and which, after a long

long intermission of its labours, was re-established in 1770. All the members in No. I. are composed with considerable spirit; and form a very entertaining little volume; and the whole are handsomely printed, and embellished with neat engravings. The degree of national partiality, which appears throughout, is not altogether unpleasant, and in some passages is amusing; as in the following comment on the improvement said to have been derived by James the First of Scotland from his residence in England:—

‘James, we are told, was, on the score of mental improvement, rather a gainer than a loser by his captivity; the English monarchs are even said to have accomplished, in this respect, what went nigh to a full atonement for their unjust and lawless detention of this unfortunate prince. Vain apology! In his infant years, James had for his preceptor one of the brightest ornaments of the Scottish hierarchy of that period, Walter Wardlaw, Archbishop of St. Andrews; and the youth, who might have continued to enjoy the tuition of a Wardlaw, and such as Wardlaw, could have nothing to gain by being transferred to the care of all the doctors in England.’

James’s vindictive measures, after his arrival in Scotland, and his conduct to the Regent, — than which nothing could be more unjust or more impolitic, — are by no means set in their true light. James was indeed an extraordinary man, and, considering the age in which he lived, in many respects a very noble character; but he was by no means perfect, and it is always mischievous to palliate and throw a gloss over the crimes of eminent persons.

The life of Ramsay is written with a full conception of his singular and humorous genius: but in our opinion the most accurate criticism in the number before us is the view of the prose as well as poetical productions of Beattie. The excellency of the *Minstrel* is universally acknowledged; but it is not always that the superiority of Beattie’s miscellaneous essays and dissertations over his *Essay on Truth* is admitted, or that the latter is so justly appreciated as we find it in the following short passage.

‘The *Essay on Truth*, notwithstanding the great share which it had in contributing to his fame, may, with safety, be pronounced as among the least durable of his productions. The work was polemical, and there never yet was any thing polemical designed for immortality. As a piece of reasoning, it was more confounding than persuasive; difficult to answer, yet abounding in incongruities; right in most of its fundamental positions, but often ambiguous and incorrect in their application. It had neither the precision of expression nor clearness of idea necessary to give it a lasting place among philosophical compositions.’

In the Second Part are contained the lives of James the Fifth, Dunbar, Sir James Inglis, Blind Harry, Sir David Lindsay, Alexander Barclay, Montgomery, the Earl of Stirling, Drummond of Hawthornden, Thomson, and Oswald. — The life of James is a piece of high-coloured party-writing throughout; in which his disgraceful courtship of the fair Vendome, and his immediately subsequent marriage of the Princess Magdalene, are changed into a romantic tale

of

of the Princess falling in love with him at first sight. — The account of Drummond of Hawthornden is, both from the subject and from the manner in which it is written, the most interesting in this number : but the author is unjustly severe on Ben Jonson, and forgets to animadvert on the treachery of Drummond in noting down the confidential talk of a friendly visitor dwelling under his roof. We cannot agree with him, moreover, when he observes that in Drummond's sonnets, composed after the death of his mistress, we find considerable improvement in his versification, and more of simple and natural feeling than in any of his preceding productions : for we think that many of the sonnets written during his first courtship, and particularly that which is addressed to the Nightingale, (numbered 33 in the complete collection of his poems,) are fully equal, if not superior, to any that he afterward wrote.

We have considerable doubts whether Barclay was a Scot ; and they are not removed by a passage here given in his life as a quotation from one Dr. Bulleyn, which we extract for the amusement of our readers, under the impression, till it is better authenticated, that it is an ingenious imitation of the antique.

Witty Chaucer, who sat in a chair of gold covered with roses, writing prose and rhyme, accompanied with the spirits of many kings, knights, and fair ladies, whom he pleasantly besprinkled with the sweet water of the well, consecrated to the Muses, named Aganippe. Near also sat old moral Gower, with pleasant pen in hand, commending honest love without lust, and pleasure without pride ; holiness in the clergy without hypocrisy ; no tyranny in rulers, no falsehood in lawyers, no busary in merchants, no rebellion in the commons, and unity among the kingdoms, &c. There appeared also Lydgate lamenting among the lilies, with his bald sequee, and a garland of willows about it. Booted he was after St. Burnet's guise ; and a black stammel robe, with a monstrous hood, hanging backward ; his body stooping forward, bewailing every state with the spirit of Providence ; foreseeing the falls of wicked men, and the slippery seats of princes ; the ebbing and flowing, the rising and falling of men in authority ; how virtue advances the simple, and vice overthrows the most noble of the world. Skelton sat in the corner, with a frosty bitten face, frowning and scarcely yet cooled of the hot burning choler kindled against the cankered Cardinal Wolsey, writing many a sharp distich with bloody pen against him, which he sent through the infernal Styx, Phlegeton, and Acheron, by the ferryman of hell, called Charon, to the said cardinal. Then Barclay, in a hooping russet long coat, with a pretty hood on his neck, and fine knots upon his girdle, after Francis's tricks. He was born beyond the cold river Tweed ; he lodged upon a bed of sweet camomile, under the cinnamon tree ; about him many shepherds and sheep, with pleasant pipes, greatly abhorring the life of courtiers." [John Oswald, whose *nomme de guerre* was Sylvester Otway, surely produced nothing that can justify his introduction among eminent Scotch poets.]

Part III. presents the lives of James the Sixth, Sir Richard Maitland, Arthur Johnstone, Hamilton of Bangour, Hamilton of Gilbertfield, Samuel Colvil, Alexander Ross, Armstrong, Ogilvie, Macpherson, and Salmon. Though the subject is one of the least interesting, the best written memoir is that of James VI. The author takes nearly the same view of James's conduct and character which Harris entertained; the reflections interspersed are judicious; and the comments on the artifices employed by Hume in drawing his subtle apology and panegyric are excellent. Among the rest of the lives, those of Johnstone, Armstrong, or Macpherson, could not be expected to afford much that was new. Hamilton of Bangor is well known, and has been long justly appreciated as standing high among those secondary poets who dribble unmeaning love-songs: but it remained for the present biographer to expose the few absurd extravagances into which he fell by selecting them for eulogy. For instance, the passage

"I'd be a miser too, nor give
An alms to keep a God alive,"

might pass undetected in the midst of surrounding nonsense: but the biographer insures our attention to its absurdity by exclaiming, 'A noble burst of fancy! The most genuine passion will seek in vain for a more expressive image of the boundless avarice of love.'

Colvil was a mere imitator of Butler.—Ogilvie was little known in his lifetime, and has since with great justice been nearly forgotten.—Hamilton of Gilbertfield and Charles Salmon never were known as poets, and never will be.—Sir Richard Maitland made a collection of the poems of others, but his own productions are very prosaic.

We mark some inconsistencies in these lives, which make us suspect interpolations in the MSS. by some reviser who entertains different political principles from the author. For instance, in No. II. p. 119., when Drummond's History of the Five Stuarts has been termed 'in fact a *very partial* history,' a paragraph follows, intended to shew that the events passing when he wrote 'are the best possible comment on its *impartiality*;' and this paragraph is accompanied by a note endeavouring to shew we know not what.—So again, in the life of Dunbar, (No. H. p. 29.) we are told that 'James the Fourth had many failings; though strong in them all; but a disregard for the decencies of life was certainly none of the number.'

The Latin quotations are printed with but little accuracy. In Part II. p. 103. line 18., we find '*mellit atque*' for '*mellitæque*;' and in Part III. p. 16. line 10., we have '*manusculi pretium*' for '*manusculi pretium*;' and in the same page, line 16., '*cælibus*' for '*cætibus*.'—Part IV. has just reached us.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 27. *Brief Observations on the present State of the Highlanders, and upon their actual Sufferings, made in the Summer of*
1820.

1820. By George Lowther, Esq. 8vo. pp. 52. Bath.

1821.
Mr. Lowther goes back to the 13th century to express his abomination of the ancient crusade against the Waldenses and Albigenses; he then enlarges on the atrocities committed by Victor Amadeus, Duke of Savoy, in the seventeenth century; and much is also said of a massacre projected in the year 1794, but which never took place. As to any recent events, the only fact mentioned which bears the semblance of persecution is that, in 1814, a church which had been built in the commune of St. Jean, beyond certain limits prescribed in old times, was ordered to be shut up. This circumstance is twice recorded in the text; but, in a note to one of the passages, we are informed that 'the church was permitted to be re-opened in 1815, on condition that a wall should be erected before it to screen it from the eyes of the Papists.'—The Protestants in the vallies of Piedmont, if Mr. Lowther's account be correct, are not under any actual sufferings, but they are under certain political disabilities, of the same kind with those which press on the Roman Catholics in Great Britain. We think that it would be a benefit to the state in every country, and no injury to true religion, if such disabilities were removed:—but the Protestants of Piedmont have no more reason to complain that they are merely tolerated, than the Roman Catholics (or, to use Mr. Lowther's term, 'the Papists') of Ireland.

Our readers will see that the case of the Piedmontese is very different from that of the inhabitants of Languedoc in the years 1814 and 1815, as represented by Mr. Wilks. (See Art. VII. of the *M. R.* for October.)

Art. 28. *The Personal Narrative of a Private Soldier, who served in the 42d Highlanders for Twelve Years during the late War.* 12mo. 6s. Boards. Allman. 1821.

The success which attended the "Journal of a Soldier of the 71st Foot," mentioned in one of our former Numbers, avowedly induced a friend of one of the brave 42d to write a similar narrative of his adventures. We cannot say, however, that we have perused this volume with as much interest as we received from the former; and indeed this ready spirit of imitation seems to call for a hint that it may be carried too far on such occasions as the present. We do not wish too often to make a campaign as private soldiers, not only sharing their hardships but partaking of their irregularities and excesses; and, though the editor speaks of his friend as a worthy man, now respectably settled, and the industrious father of a family, his own candid relation does not always place him in the most advantageous light as a soldier, or bring before the reader the most stimulant and useful examples of aspiring effort and successful perseverance.

Art. 29. *Sketches of the Domestic Manners and Institutions of the Romans.* 12mo. pp. 347. 7s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

1821

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This

This anonymous compiler, besides consulting D'Arny, Kenet, Adam, and Potter, has made a very judicious use of Beckmann's valuable History of Inventions, and has altogether formed a work which we think is likely to afford much amusement, united with instruction, to the young or to the fair students of ancient manners and customs. The subjects chosen for illustration have been selected with much propriety, and the volume is written in a pleasing and familiar style.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 30. *A Funeral Sermon for Caroline Queen of England; delivered at Parliament-Court Chapel, 19th August, 1821.*

By W. J. Fox. 8vo. 1s. Hunter.

Assuming the innocence of the late Queen with regard to all the charges preferred against her, and consequently reprobating the persecution which she endured, Mr. Fox discourses with pathos on the event which conducted her to her only refuge, "where the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest." (Job, iii. 17.) Not staying to discuss the premises on which the preacher argues, we must grant that his composition manifests a degree of feeling, eloquence, force, and correctness of language which is very creditable to his talents. — In referring to the unfortunate circumstances, however, which occurred at her Majesty's funeral, Mr. F. speaks of the military profession in terms which as a Christian he may justify, but to which a man of the world can scarcely assent; and in a note he alludes to royal birth as a misfortune, on an hypothesis which he may defend by argument, but which will not appear very courtly to the generality of readers. — The comparison between the case of Job and that of the late Queen is made in an impressive manner; and Mr. F. has also wrought up the conclusion of his sermon with considerable effect, in descending on the traits which mark the English character as they were manifested in the conduct of the people towards the Queen, and which should render us proud of our country and of the name of Englishmen.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We shall endeavour to look farther into the matter which is the subject of the letter signed *An admirer of Robinson Crusoe*, when we have more leisure than we have at present.

The note from Islington is received, and we will have a rummage for the book in question.

Other letters must be deferred, for future consideration.

Our party is much obliged to you for the note of the 21st inst. for the number for October, p. 219, note, for I would be more correct than fundamental, read *should be fundamental*.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1821.

ART. I. *Rome in the Nineteenth Century*; containing a complete Account of the Ruins of the Ancient City, the Remains of the Middle Ages, and the Monuments of Modern Times; with Remarks on the Fine Arts, on the State of Society, and on the Religious Ceremonies, Manners, and Customs of the Modern Romans; in a Series of Letters written during a Residence at Rome, in the Years 1817 and 1818. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 14 11s. 6d. Boards. Constable and Co. Edinburgh; Hurst and Co. London. 1820.

ITALY was the foremost picture in our exhibition for the last month, and again it forms our frontispiece. The "Eternal City" is indeed an eternal theme, and in itself and its connections is ever calling on the public attention even in this "sea-girt isle;" — this "tramontane spot," "almost cut off from the whole world," as it was represented by one of the greatest among the heroes who illustrated antient Rome. Yet who turns from the banquet with cloyed appetite; — who is wearied with exploring the remains of the glorious monuments of art which once adorned that city; — or who is satiated with contemplating the charms of nature still presented by the plains and the mountains of this favored country? — Again, too, we are entering Italy with a *female* guide, though not another Lady Morgan: the difference between the two writers being essential in its nature and varied in its objects. We can, however, conscientiously recommend these lively and intelligent volumes, as the production of no vulgar pen, to all who are desirous of acquiring, in an elegant and pleasing form, much requisite information concerning antient and modern Rome; and we have no hesitation in saying that, if the fair author had adopted a more systematic arrangement of her materials, instead of the disjointed and desultory form of letters, her work would have been beyond comparison the most useful guide-book with which we are acquainted.

Our praise ought not to be the less valued because it may be qualified with just and reasonable censure; and we shall
REV. DEC. 1821. Z there-

were wanting to accomplish in an elucidation of Roman antiquities had been done already by preceding antiquarians. A judicious selection from their labours, enriched by personal observations and study, relieving the dullness of research by playfulness of fancy and elegance of diction, and conveying the substance of their voluminous details in a form more concise and pleasing, was still a desideratum which has been felt and deplored by all who have visited Rome; and the ingenious author of the work before us has in our opinion greatly contributed to supply it.

of Vicary, a desideratum; for, notwithstanding the multitude of ancient and modern treatises concerning Rome, a perspicuous and accurate description of "this city of the soul" was still requisite; and, by a singular fatality, though frequently described, that venerable spot has scarcely to this day been satisfactorily elucidated. There seems to be no intermediate work between dry and barren itineraries, which neither direct the taste nor enlighten the judgment of the student, and voluminous and redundant disquisitions wholly unfit for general use. The early dissertations on Rome, and on its varied monuments of art and genius, abound with errors incident to an imperfect state of archaeological science. Neither Petrus nor Poggio excelled as an antiquary, and their treatises are full of the most ridiculous mistakes and absurd exaggerations. The former called the pyramid of Cestius the tomb of Remus; and Poggio, who is surprised at so palpable a blunder, betrays a still stronger propensity to error in his elegant lamentations over the fallen city. Towards the close of the 15th century, Pomponas Laetus made a collection of antiques on the Quirinal hill, and acquired some reputation from his examination of its ruins; but he has incurred the reproach of imposture, by forging an inscription for the statue of Claudian in the forum of Trajan, which imposed on Nardini, and has but recently been detected. Fabricius is remarkable for the unauthorized boldness of conjecture, with which he distributes ancient names to supposed relics. Bonnus and Nardini are indeed laborious and useful guides; but Montfaucon at the end of the 17th century complained of them as unsatisfactory, and the deficiency was not supplied either by him or his contemporaries. Venturi has been not only highly praised by Forsyth, the most acute and intelligent of our modern travellers; but he leaves no conviction that he succeeded; *non quia scire debet, sed quia non videt*.

— "Do fortuna varietate urbis Romæ et de ruinis ejusdem Descript." Apud Nov. Thesauri Antiq. Abund. tom. i.

on which the mind can repose, and rather involves every topic in greater doubt than he found.

Our own writers, with the exception of Mr. Forsyth, have done but little in this laborious department, and even the work of this last-mentioned traveller, though conspicuous for original and condensed thinking, is imperfect as a survey. Of Eustace, it has been lately too much the fashion to speak slightly; but his accuracy in some instances has been called in question by competent judges; and the author of these volumes observes of him that 'he might serve as a guide to the churches, if his total ignorance of the arts did not disqualify him even for that, — but that in other respects he will only serve to mislead.' Nothing, however, seems to demonstrate more decisively the insufficiency of recent archaeologists, than the republication of Nardini's work, which has been undertaken by M. Nibby, one of the professional antiquaries of Rome. This deficiency in the science of Roman antiquity is the more unaccountable, because there has existed at Rome for some years an archaeological society, whose members are constantly at work on the ruins of the city and its vicinity; and many liberally educated persons have exclusively devoted themselves to the instruction and guidance of strangers through the remains of the old town, and the museums of the new. — Our slight summary of the present state of antiquarian knowledge at Rome would be imperfect, were we to omit all mention of Lalande, who is by far the most intelligent of foreign writers on Roman antiquities; but unfortunately, though replete with learning, he is unfortunately dry and tedious.

Every stranger at Rome has felt the perplexity arising from the want of books of reference, on which he could rely as safe and satisfactory authorities. As to the common itineraries, which have been so happily termed "*valets de place* in print," the intelligence which they give is seldom interesting when authentic, and when interesting is rarely authentic. They jumble together matters of the highest moment and the lowest insignificance; and they not unfrequently abound in minute details about the different parts of one tawdry church, than about the noblest monuments of antiquity; occupying the attention by objects scarcely worthy of the most transient notice, and passing over many of the highest interest.

A picture of Rome, therefore, still to this day, is a desideratum, the want of which is felt by every traveller, and which is the object of every antiquary. The rare and dubious lights that may be thrown upon its antiquities, are scattered through the literature of ages, and must be collected,

collected, but only from the works of the Roman antiquaries and classics, but from the heavy tomes of the Gothic chroniclers; and what are even more dull, and far more voluminous, the wire-spun dissertations of the Italian antiquaries. Among the numerous ponderous volumes that have been compiled on the antiquities of Rome, Nardini's is the only one in the least worth studying, and as a book of reference it may prove highly useful; but such is its bulk and verbosity, that few will read it at Rome, and fewer still I will venture to say, after they have left it. Few, indeed, will there find leisure for such uninviting research; few, when the proud remains of antiquity, and the unrivalled works of art, call upon the eye and the mind in every direction, will turn from them to pore over musty volumes.

With me the case was different. Possessed of an unconquerable passion for the study, nothing was a labour that could tend to elucidate it; my previous pursuits had turned my attention to these subjects; I had leisure, opportunities, and, I will add, industry, that few of my countrymen possessed; and, during two years, I availed myself to the utmost of every means of intelligence, of access to rare books, of the opinions of the best informed, and, above all, of the diligent study of history, pursued solely with this view.

It would be unjust to this fair author, if we did not avow that her own estimate of the utility of her work has been by no means miscalculated; and that those who visit Rome, or wish to recall the remembrance of it after they have visited it, will find a correct and glowing picture of it in this production. She describes, indeed, both the antient and modern wonders with which it abounds in diction which sometimes oversteps the sobriety of prose, and borrows perhaps too frequently the colouring and the fervour of poetry; but, on such subjects, what pen can be tame? Indeed, subdued as our own feelings are by the austere gravity of our functions, we cannot withhold our sympathies in the raptures with which she wandered amid these august relics. There the genius of the place seems to walk abroad amid the fallen memorials of her greatness, and to call forth, with spells of magic potency, the forms of the wise and good in whose footsteps we are treading; while images of virtue and of patriotism start up in all their grandeur, and enlarged to our contemplation still more by the mist of interposing years. Amid such inspiring scenes, how strongly do we feel the nothingness of the present, and the littleness of its pursuits, its hopes, or its perturbations! The mind is filled with the sad but instructive tale of the foreboding storm, which once overwhelmed the world with darkness and ruin, and whose awful mission is entrusted and transmitted to the feeble, trembling, and feeble, and must be collected.

grave in which human ambition, wearied with enslaving and destroying mankind, is at length destined to repose.

Yet no where are these local associations more liable to sudden and violent interruptions; since the antiquities of Rome are overhung with doubt and uncertainty, and from the greater part of her monuments the very names have passed away. The Coliseum, the three triumphal arches, the obelisks, and the Pantheon, tell indeed their own story; and we may add to them the arches of Drusus, — the baths of Diocletian, of Caracalla, of Constantine, and the fragments of those of Titus, — the mausoleums of Augustus and Hadrian, — the tomb of Cestius and of the Scipios, — the column of Phocas, — the Septimian arch, — the scanty ruins of the Claudian aqueduct, — two of the city-gates, — the arcades of the cloaca, — and the Ælian bridge: — but all the rest is debatable ground, on which no settled opinion can be formed. Concerning the remains in the Forum, the antiquaries have waged interminable battles. The temple of Jupiter Stator has, within a few years, been converted into the Comitium; and the temple of Concord, where Cicero brought to light the conspiracy of Catiline, and the patriotic virtue of the consul achieved one of its most memorable triumphs, — the temple of Concord, where, as our readers may remember, Middleton* says that “he could not help fancying himself more sensible of the force of his eloquence, whilst the impression of the place served to warm his imagination to a degree almost equal to that of his old audience,” — even that temple of Concord, on whose grass-grown area so many travellers have felt with tears of rapture in their eyes that they stood on the very spot which the orator had so often trodden, — is now changed into the temple of Fortune, and all its local sanctities are gone for ever. The antiquaries have pronounced it to be a work of the reign of Constantine.

We have exercised some diligence in our enumeration of those ruins of which the identity is not doubted; and we do not think that the minutest investigation will find within the walls another monument, of which the character is fixed and definite, and out of the reach of controversy. In a work like that before us, professing to be an antiquarian treatise, and offered as a manual for the use of strangers, the author ought to have begun by clearing, as it were, the ground, and pointing out such remains as possess an authenticity unquestioned. Of the times of the republic, indeed, we have scarcely any vestiges: — a disappointment still more severe for the clas-

tical pilgrim, since it is on the chaste and manly virtue of those ages that the moral taste loves to dwell. In the estimation of all to whose recollection the heroic achievements and the continent and modest lives of the Catos, the Camilli, and the Curii are endeared, a single fragment of those times would be worth all the multiplied and proud remains that attest the magnificence of the Cæsars. We were surprised that the present author should have also neglected this branch of her subject, as if deeming an accurate specification of the relics of that age unessential. It was one of the complaints of Poggio, three centuries past, that scarcely a vestige remained of the free city; and of the monuments which he enumerates many are no longer to be seen. That learned Florentine visited Rome twice, and in the interval between his journeys several beautiful fragments had been ground to lime, the Romans having discovered that mortar made with oriental marble was more serviceable than that of common stone. It is probable that the fabrication of churches and other buildings, then going on, is one of the chief causes of the disappearance of those relics; and, if Forsyth be correct, the few memorials of the republican city which subsist at this day consist merely of a sewer, a row of vaults in the Capitol constructed by Catulus, the pavement of the sepulchre of Publicius, (which in the time of Poggio was nearly intire,) the fragments of Pompey's theatre, and those of a circus.

Although, however, the writer of this intelligent work has by these omissions rendered it so far incomplete as a systematic description of Roman antiquities, (we have pointed them out only that, in a future edition they may be supplied,) they are amply compensated by the general diligence of her researches. We pass by her animated sketches of Florence and of her journey thence to Rome, in order to participate in the admiration and delight with which she hails the first view of the Papal metropolis itself. We have seldom seen the approach to that august spot described with more picturesque truth and spirit than in the following passage:

In answer to our eager enquiries of when we should see Rome, our phlegmatic vetturino only replied, "Adesso! adesso!" unable, seemingly, to conceive any other cause for our anxiety, than the very natural impatience to get to the end of our tedious journey. Our longing eyes were intently fixed on the spot where we were told that it would first appear; when at length, the carriage having toiled up to the top of a long hill, the vetturino exclaimed, "Eccola!" The dome of St. Peter's appeared in view; and, springing out of the carriage, and up a bank by the road side, we beheld from its summit Rome!

WORKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR.

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If it stood in the midst of the old waste of the Campagna whose brown herbage was glistening in the silvery dews of morning. In the hollow below us, a ruined Gothic tower, shaded by some straggling trees, formed a fine foreground to the view of the distant city. Its indistinct buildings formed a sort of long irregular line, in which the lofty dome of St. Peter's, and the castle St. Angelo, once the proud mausoleum of Hadrian, were alone prominent. Shall I venture to confess to you, that it was with eyes dimmed with tears that I gazed for the first time on Rome? I saw before me the great, the ancient, the eternal city, the acknowledged Queen of Nations, — the Mistress of the World, the seat of glory, and the land of patriots, of poets, and of heroes. —

We stood now on charmed and classic ground, on Latium itself, and beheld around us nearly all its storied field.

Far beyond Rome, to the south, the highest of that range of hills which bound the southern horizon, rose the beautiful woody height of Mount Cavo, the far-famed Mons Albanus, on whose utmost summit once stood the venerable temple of Jupiter Latiaris.

Next it, on the left, Frascati, the ancient Tusculum, rising gracefully from the plain, caught our eye, reminding us of the classic retreat that Cicero once possessed beneath its shades. To the east, our view was terminated by the white peaks of the distant Apennines, which rose beneath a lower, nearer range of grassy hills, called the Sabine hills. The Sabine hills! — Their very name seemed to transport us into the romantic period of early history. In fancy, we saw the spot where the Sabines mourned the rape of their wives and daughters, — where Cincinnatus ploughed his fields, and where Horace enjoyed the rural pleasures of his Sabine farm. In reality, on their green sides we beheld the white walls of Tivoli, the ancient Tibur; and, farther to the east, Palestrina, the ancient Præneste, where stood the great temple of Fortuna. —

Between the Sabine hills on the east, and the hills of Viterbo (Mons Ciminius) on the north, which we had so lately crossed, the bold ridge of Mount Soracte rose from the plain, insulated from every other height, but no longer bearing even its classic name, which is now corrupted into that of St. Onesto! Still, however, as the most striking, the most picturesque, and, excepting the Alban Mount, the most lofty and beautiful of all the amphitheatre of mountains that surround three sides of the plain. Far as the eye can reach, the dreary solitude of the Campagna stretches about twenty miles, in every direction, to the base of these hills. To the west, a wild, sullen flat, extends to the sea. A profusion of bushy thickets, and a few solitary trees, were scattered over the broken surface of this unenclosed and homeless plain. — For a plain it is, — and, at the distance of sixteen miles, where we stood, we distinctly saw Rome, — but it is not all dead. So many have asserted, on the contrary, it is generally undulating ground, interspersed with broken hills, and steep

barren, covered with wild, shaggy, tall, odd, or lonely trees, and pine-trees, which grow in great numbers, and are scattered all over this wild waste, no rural dwelling, nor cultivated fields, nor gardens, such as usually mark the neighbourhood of populous cities, were to be seen. All was ruin, fallen monuments of Roman days, grey towers of Gothic times, — abandoned habitations of modern years, — alone met the eye. No trace of man appeared except in the lonely tomb, which told us that life had been. Rome herself was all that we beheld. She stood alone in the wilderness as in the world, surrounded by a desert of her own creation, — a desert which accords but too well with her former greatness and her present decay.

The first visit of most strangers is to St. Peter's; and the fair author's remarks on this superb boast of modern architecture are not only conceived in the correctest spirit of criticism, but are most happily expressed. She justly censures its external plan, which is so irredeemably faulty as to give to the greatest temple in the world the outward insignificance of a dwelling-house. She observes also that the crowded courts and irregular angles of that huge unwieldy pile of building, the Vatican palace, which adhere to one side of it, are a monstrous deformity, overlooking the colonnade, depressing its elevation, and injuring its general effect; but her raptures on seeing the unparalleled beauty and magnificence of the interior are such as the noblest and most wonderful of the works of man would excite in every bosom of taste and feeling. St. Peter's has been often described, but never (we believe) with more accuracy and discrimination than by the present tourist.

We paused beneath the lofty dome, — which, like heaven itself, seems to rise above our head, and around whose golden vault the figures of the Apostles appear enshrined in glory, and leaning against the rails of the Confessional of St. Peter, looked down at that magnificent tomb, where, lighted by a thousand never-dying lamps, and canopied by the wreathed pillars and contained fastenings of the brazen tabernacle, — the mortal remains of the Apostolic reposer. On every side the Latin cross opened up a view of indescribable beauty, and decked in various splendour, which the labours of ages, the wealth of kingdoms, the spoils of ancient times, and the proudest inventions of modern magnificence, have combined to furnish. Yet, with all its prodigality of ornament, it is not overloaded; and while its richness charms the eye, its simplicity harmoniously satisfies the taste. There is no vulgarity, no show, but glories in the palace of death, and catches the attention, and takes from the grandeur of the whole. All is subservient to the general effect. The interior, indeed, on the whole, as far as surpassed by highly raised expectations as the exterior fell short of them. Yet, notwithstanding its beauty, I was conscious of a species of disappointment

pointment too commonly felt, when what we have long dwelt on in fancy is seen in reality. It was equal, perhaps superior, to what I had expected, but it was different; for we cannot avoid forming some idea of any thing we think of so much; and St. Peter's, in the inside as well as the out, was as unlike the image in my mind as possible. I had pictured it to myself less beautiful, and far less magnificent, but more sublime. With an imagination deeply impressed with the imposing effects of the Gothic cathedrals of our own country, I expected, from the immensity of St. Peter's, even more of that religious awe and deep solemn melancholy, which they never fail to inspire; and I was unprepared for its lightness, gaiety, decoration, and brilliance. I knew, indeed, it was Grecian, but the lengthening colonnade and majestic entablature had dwelt upon my fancy, and I was surprised to see the Corinthian pilaster and the Grecian arch. And that arch, however noble in itself, from the necessity of proportioning it to the magnitude of the building, has the unfortunate effect of diminishing the apparent length, which the perspective of a Grecian colonnade, or a Gothic aisle, uniformly appears to increase. There are only four of these arches in the whole length of the nave of this immense church, and the eye, measuring the space by the number, becomes cheated in the distance. This I cannot but consider a capital defect. You may indeed argue your understanding, but not your senses, into a conviction of the size of St. Peter's: the mind believes it, but the eye remains unimpressed with it.

St. Peter's and its beautiful colonnades (the work of Bernini) are entirely built of Travertine, or, as it was anciently called, Tiburtine stone, brought from Tivoli. This beautiful material, which is of the sunniest hue, and the most compact smoothness of surface, looks as bright and fresh as if finished yesterday. How much superior is such stone to the finest marble for exterior architecture, in solidity, durability, colour, and beauty!

The colonnades were intended by Buonarroti to have reached in two direct lines to the Castle St. Angelo, — but, alas! even the wretched houses which choke up the ground have not been removed. The French talked of doing this, with many other things; but they never did more than talk. Yet the Piazza, when you are in it, requires nothing to improve it. The graceful sweep of the majestic colonnades, the obelisk that tells the gigantic grandeur of primeval ages, the purity of the ever-playing fountains that delight the eye with their silvery light, and the ear with the music of their waters, — present a picture of such enchanting beauty, that I could gaze on it for ever with undiminished delight: but it makes one doubly regret the wretched taste which has disfigured the front of St. Peter's itself.

We cannot accompany this agreeable writer to the Coliseum, but would refer our readers to the animated description of those splendid remains contained in her ninth letter: as we must also content ourselves with merely recommending, to those who are enamoured of picturesque delineation, her

grand survey of Rome from the tower of the Capitol. We follow her to the Vatican, and catch a spark of her enthusiasm as we peruse her glowing enumeration of its treasures. In a delirium of admiration, (we use her own phrase,) her eyes revelled in this temple of taste, this consecrated seat of the fine arts; and she frankly avows that its richly painted ceilings, its pavements of mosaic, its polished columns of porphyry, its endless accumulations of Grecian marbles and Egyptian granites, its extent and prodigality of antient and modern art, so confused her senses, that she could scarcely believe in the reality of the scene. When her emotions are calmed down to a more tranquil state, we find her by no means incompetent to a cool investigation, and critical analysis, of the inexhaustible beauty which reigns through those astonishing museums.

From the colonnade of St. Peter's, the author entered the galleries of the Vatican. Passing through a double range of the statues of heroes, emperors, and gods,

We ascended, she says, 'a flight of stairs, adorned with columns of polished granite, and painted in fresco by Daniel di Volterra, — and found ourselves in what the inscription and guides informed us is the Museo Pio Clementino, founded by Clement XIV. (Ganganelli), and enlarged by the late Pope Pius VI. (Braschi.) Before us, we saw the famous Torso, the favourite study of Michael Angelo Buonarrotti; although a mere trunk, without head, arms, or legs, it must ever form the model of the sculptor, and the admiration of every mind of taste. At the first glance, its perfection may not strike those unused to mutilated statuary; but the more it is looked at, the more it will be admired. The bend of the back, the curve of the side, the noble style, the easy commanding air, the majestic figure, the truth of nature, and faultless perfection of design, have perhaps never been equalled. It is seated on a lion's skin, and is supposed to be Hercules in repose. It is inscribed with the sculptor's name, Apollonius the Athenian, who is conjectured to have lived in the grand era of sculpture, immediately after the time of Alexander the Great.

Some beautiful fragments of statuary are standing on the ground beside it, of which the fine folds and fall of the drapery are said to have been the frequent study of Raphael, who formed his taste, and his own noble style of drapery, chiefly upon ancient models.

I lifted up my eyes from the contemplation of those beautiful relics at my feet, and beheld opposite to me the famous Meleager, ~~one of the finest statues in the world~~.

Those who cannot visit the galleries and cabinets of the Vatican will derive, from the eleventh letter, no scanty portion of the delight and admiration which were imparted by the actual

actual contemplation of its treasures. The eloquent delineation of the Apollo Belvidere it would be unpardonable not to notice, as a specimen of extraordinary powers of diction and of fancy; and on such a subject we cannot persuade ourselves to chide the writer when she strays into the regions of poetry for language to impart her sensations; although they will expose her, we apprehend, to the rebukes of the graver and more matron-like portion of her own sex, and the sneers of the lighter part of ours, when she tells us that in the 'visions of the night the form of the Apollo returned upon her, bright in immortal youth, and resplendent in beauty.' We will admit that these are ticklish dreams to haunt the slumbers of a lady: but who that remarks the ingenuousness of her avowal will not be disposed to exclaim, in the language of Adam on an occasion somewhat similar,

"Yet evil whence? in thee can harbour none?"

Considerable talent for antiquarian research appears in the thirteenth letter, on the walls and gates of Rome: which supplies in an easy and agreeable form the species of information that is most required by travellers, and which they would not obtain from the *Itinerario* of Vasi or the confused explanations of a Cicerone. It begins with the gradual growth of the city from the first beginnings, — notices the succession in which the Seven Hills were added to her boundaries, — and traces the extension of her walls, their progress, and their decay, with commendable research and perspicuity. They underwent various changes and additions in the eighth and ninth centuries, and form at present a circuit of fourteen miles, comprising an immense extent of unpeopled land. The stranger may wander for several miles within the walls of Rome as if he were in a desert; for he will see no animated being within their gates, and no human voice will answer to his call. To the south, the hills are desolate; and only in the north and in the *Campus martius* are life and motion perceptible. It is lamentable to think that the most precious remains of antiquity were sacrificed to the composition of these walls. Entire marble statues have actually been extracted from the heart of them; and a Minerva, now in the museum of the Capitol, was released by mere chance from her long imprisonment.

We have been tempted to devote so much space to the foregoing observations and extracts, that we must refrain from making any remarks on the author's correct and learned disquisitions on the antient and modern gates of Rome. It is, however, worth while to advert to one curious fact, that according to Pliny there were thirty-seven gates; a most unnecessary

necessary number, the fair writer remarks, "especially as twelve of them were double; and the antiquaries of this day, who think that they know better than he did, will not believe him. All the great roads to the city had then double gates; — one for those who were entering, the other for those who were leaving it." It is with regret that we also feel ourselves compelled to render imperfect justice to the dissertation on the Seven Hills; of which, some scarcely deserve the name. The Palatine, the Aventine, and the Capitoline, are indeed of some elevation: but as for the Esquiline and Quirinal, they have scarcely any fall on the opposite side to that on which they rise. With regard to the Viminal hill, the author says that she has never been able to find it, though she searched most diligently for it. The fall of the ruins from the Esquiline and Quirinal hills, between which it was situated, together with that of its own building, has interred it with them in one common grave.

By far the most ingenious part of this work is that which traces the successive revolutions of the Palatine hill. It is an admirable summary of a subject on which whole folios have been compiled; accurately and briefly relating the various changes of the wide-spread palace of the Cæsars, from its foundation by Augustus to its dilapidation in the long feudal wars of the Romans during the barbarous ages, and the consummation of its ruin by the Farnese Popes and Princes, who built their palaces and villas from its superb materials. They (the Farnese Popes) buried these magnificent halls beneath their wretched gardens, and erected upon them the hideous summer-houses and grottos, the deformity of which still impeaches the taste of their architect, Michael Angelo Buonarrotti.

A short but comprehensive disquisition on the Roman Forum follows the survey of the Seven Hills; and subjoined is a plan of its relative situation, with the remains of antiquity yet standing in it, which we recommend to those who wish to obtain an accurate notion of this celebrated spot and the magnificent ruins that still cover it. The first volume contains also a satisfactory description of many other Roman antiquities, to which our limits will not permit us to advert. In all these disquisitions, the fair writer has cleared the ground, as it were, from those controversial perplexities which the antiquaries have thrown in the way of a correct perception of subjects, by encumbering them with a load of ostentatious and pedantic erudition. Her conjectures are at once modest and rational, and formed on a sound and substantial induction.

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The author is also by no means an incompetent guide to the museums and cabinets of the modern era. She is more than tinged with the principles of the fine arts, and her artists could discourse more scientifically and with more accuracy of perception on the works of the great masters in the noble galleries of the Vatican. Her remarks on the frescos of Michel Angelo, Raphael, and Annibal Carracci, are in strict accordance with the rules of taste and common sense, far outweighing the presumptuous decisions which the mere virtuoso pronounces on these stupendous works. She notices also the master-pieces of Michel Angelo, which adorn the roof, representing the figure of the Eternal Father calling the world out of chaos, — the bliss of our first parents in paradise, — their expulsion, &c. &c. For ourselves, we have recently expressed our opinion on the unauthorized boldness of those artists, who attempt to represent in a palpable form such a subject as that of the Creator, the great archetype of perfection, dwelling in light ineffable, — "Where angels tremble as they gaze."

We attended the fair writer with great satisfaction through the gallery of oil-paintings, and the Camere of Raffaele. Of the immortal frescos of this great artist she speaks with becoming sensibility, yet with correct judgment; and her account of the museum of the Capitol is intitled to equal commendation. The following is a masterly outline of one of the noblest relics of ancient sculpture, — the Dying Gladiator:

You now enter the last room, in which you will for a long time see nothing but the Dying Gladiator. It is, of its kind, the finest statue in the world. The learned connoisseur, and the untaught peasants, whom you may see assembled round it on Sunday, are equally struck with its faultless perfection. It is one of the finest forms, as far as mere corporeal formation can go; but unlike most of the celebrated works of ancient art, there is no ideal beauty, no expression of those high qualities and attributes, that spring from the soul. It is nature, pure nature, that arrests so forcibly our deepest sympathy. It is not a god nor a hero, but a man — and a man of servile condition and unelevated mind that we behold. The whole expression of the head and figure prove it. The hands, and the soles of the feet are hard and horny with labour, and a rope is knotted round the neck. He seems endeavouring to suppress the expression of agony, not a sigh, not a groan escapes him; unsubdued in spirit, it is his body, not his mind, that yields; but the hand of death is upon him; his life-blood trickles slowly and feebly from the wound in his side; he sinks in that last dreadful faintness of ebbing life, which all must sooner or later feel. He still supports himself with difficulty upon

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his falling arm, but his limbs have lost their force, his bristling hair and agonized face express the dreadful workings of present suffering, and the inward conviction of approaching death. He is lying upon a shield, a short sword, or dagger, beside him, and a broken horn. The critics seem to agree that he cannot be a gladiator, for these were not their proper arms; and yet we know that the *Secutores*, in their combats with the *Retiarii*, fought with swords, whether long or short seems uncertain, and with shields, — and why may they not have been such as these? The cord round the neck, and the horn, perplex them; but it appears from an ancient Greek inscription, that the heralds of the Olympic games had a cord tied round their necks, and gave the signal for their commencement by blowing a horn; nay, this very inscription was affixed upon the statue of a herald, who was also a victor in these games; so that the statue we now see may also combine both characters, and represent a herald and a wounded combatant. The mustachios, also, puzzle the antiquaries; without much reason, as it seems to me; for even if they necessarily prove that it was not a Greek, but a barbarian, we know that barbarian captives were often trained to these cruel sports. Some late critics have imagined that it represents a barbarian chief, but surely the cord round the throat is of itself a complete refutation of such an idea.

We have remained so long with our fair tourist among the master-pieces of genius, that we are compelled to dismiss the topics of her third volume with a slighter notice than they deserve. She there takes a comprehensive survey of the remains of the middle ages, comprizing the long and barbarous period between the reign of Constantine and the period of Leo the Tenth, — the interval between the fifth and the sixteenth century. The volume contains also lively and picturesque delineations of the modern city; particularly of the external architecture and interior decorations of the churches; a subject which our readers will remember to have been treated with elaborate minuteness by the late Mr. Eustace. Her discussions on the present state of Italian manners are just and original, and we extract a few of her remarks on the Italian poetry of the present day.

There are few places in which the Latin classics are more generally studied, or understood, than at Rome, nor are the great Italian poets less duly appreciated. There is not a line of Dante, or Tasso, or Petrarch, that is not diligently combed. Yet, in spite of all this studying of poets, there is no poetry. Tides of verse are poured forth in an unceasing flow, but nothing remains. They all pass into the quiet stream of oblivion.

Of all the innumerable living poets of Rome, there is not one whose works I ever yet could read to an end; perhaps, therefore, I am not competent to give an opinion upon their merits; and posterity,

poetry, I suspect, will not have the means of reaching upon them. It certainly proves a disinterested love of the truth; but there should be so many of their votaries in a country where a poet must be poor, and where indeed no author can easily make any money; but these capricious ladies do by no means seem to respond to the passion entertained for them, or bless with their favours their importunate Roman suitors.

If I am not struck with the charms of their verse, I am scarcely more captivated with their prose. Its needless length, its unvaried dulness, and its wearisome verbosity, are inconsiderate, except to those who have laboured at it; and these qualities, with few exceptions, are characteristic alike of the old and of the new writers. At least, I can truly say, that, during the two years that have elapsed since I first came to Rome, not a work has passed the press to which their own expressive "*Seccatura!*" does not apply. Why they always think it necessary to involve their meaning, when they have any, in such a cloud of words, is more than I can pretend to explain. Neither do I understand how it happens that men, who, in conversation, are so clever and entertaining, should, in their writings, be so tedious and stupid.

These observations, in some measure, apply not to Rome only, but to the whole of Italy. At the same time, wide is the difference at present between the south and the north of this country. The scale of intellectual gradation may be said to rise regularly with the degrees of latitude, from Naples to Milan. It is there you must look for literature and science. It is there, too, that the last poets of Italy flourished. Perhaps I ought to speak in the present tense, for *Pindemonte* is still alive, and it would be ungrateful to pass over one who sang the praise of the beauty, the virtue, and the mental charms and graces of my countrywomen, in strains that ought to live. *Passerone's* poems, too, possess great merit; but none, in my opinion, are equal to *Parini*, the Pope of Italy, whose admirable *Giorno*, in its witty strain of satire, may even compare with the *Rape of the Lock*.

Like Pope, too, he was deformed, and even from childhood a cripple; — and like Burns, this elegant satirist, the idol and the scourge of drawing-rooms, and the bugbear of a court, raised himself from the station of a ploughman, and struggled with poverty and with hardship, cruelly aggravated by a long life of sickness and suffering. He wrote many admirable pieces, but *"Giorno"* is by far the best.

With this solitary exception, — and we can scarcely call that a poem of the day, which has been read nearly half a century, — the most popular modern poems in Italy are, at present, translations from the English; and Ossian and the Seasons are scarcely less admired in the vales of Italy, than among their native Caledonian mountains. Poetic genius, indeed, seems to have taken its flight to our favoured island, and while the name and the lay of Byron, Campbell, Moore, Scott, Crabbe, Southey, &c. &c. resound beneath our gloomy skies, none have caught the ear of Fame in the country which would seem to be the native land and to boast the native language of song.

The modern poets of England surpass those of Italy as much as the immortal poets of Italy's better days exceed all other nations. I scarcely know how to name another modern Italian poet;—Hugo Foscolo's prose is better than his verse, and neither one of pre-eminence merit. Foscolo is dead; and his *Animali Parlanti*, though it had all the advantages of being prohibited, first by Buonaparte, and next by the existing government, is, in my humble opinion, more talked of than read, more praised than admired, and more admired than it deserves. The strain of bitter sarcasm, which runs through it, shows quite as much malignity as wit; and who can read with patience the colloquies of lions, and other beasts, through three long volumes?

We are not disposed to agree with this lady in her contemptuous decision on the merits of Foscolo. Of the harshness, indeed, of his poetical diction, there can be but one opinion, and in his dramatic writings he was a studious imitator and idolatrous admirer of Alfieri: but the *Thyestes* still keeps its place on the Italian theatre; and the ruggedness of the expression is forgotten in the vigour of its sentiments, the impassioned energy of its dialogue, and the vehement rapidity of its passions. No foreigner, however, ought to deal out hasty and unmeasured criticisms on the prose-style of an author held in such high estimation on the other side of the Alps. The letters of *Ortis* (the Italian Werter) form a work characterized not only by dignity and elevation of thought, but by the happiest purity of language. An English critic, who thus ventures to criticize the Italian style of an admired author, will have to fight against nearly the whole literary body of Italy. It is style, emphatically so called, which in this work attracts Italian admiration; and it is a critical aphorism in that country, that the elements of their prose are to be found only in the period from Dante to Machiavel. This has been Foscolo's theory. — The difficulty of pronouncing an accurate judgment on such a writer is still farther increased, to those who are not minutely versed in the niceties of the language, by that astonishing diversity which is so remarkable in the prose of this author, who varies his style according to his subject. His celebrated prose-work on the *Origin and Duties of Literature* displays a severe grammatical exactness, and a scrupulous rejection of every thing not inherent in the genius of the language: but it has also the energetic compression of Tacitus, and every sentence speaks almost as volume to the heart of the reader. — We make strong exceptions also to the flippant judgment here passed on Alfieri.

The Origin and Duties of Literature. Milan, 1805.
REV. DEC. 1821. A 2 We

We must not, however, occupy ourselves with these slight blemishes. The work is executed with unusual talent and felicity; and, since the accomplishment of it with tolerable accuracy would have been no mean praise, those who can best appreciate its difficulties will be the least unwilling to award the ample commendation which has now been earned. "*Res ardua vetustis novitatem dare, novis auctoritatem, obsoletis nitorem, obscuris lucem, fastiditis gratiam, dubiis fidem.*"—*Plin. in Præfat. Histor. Nat.*

ART. II. *Memoirs of the Life of the Right Honorable William Pitt.* By George Tomline, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Winchester, &c. First Edition, 2 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s.—Second Edition, 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. Murray. 1821.

OPINIONS differ so much among men in all the concerns and questions of life, the most insignificant as well as the most important, that it can be no matter of surprise when judgments vary so far as even to reach opposite extremes on the difficult and uncertain science of national government, and on the merits of men who navigate the vessel of state on the agitated sea of politics. Respecting the late Mr. Pitt, therefore, we have been accustomed to encounter, and do still hear, the most dissimilar character pronounced by different individuals, especially by those who attach themselves to contending parties: by some of whom he is regarded with admiration and gratitude as "the pilot who weathered the storm," while by others he is considered as having so lavishly expended the ship's stores, so weakened her main timbers, and so worn out her crew, that it will be difficult to repair her and to recruit them, even by the utmost practicable exertion and under the longest probable tranquillity.

Amid such conflicting ideas, it must still be an unanimous opinion that he forms an object worthy of contemplation, whether as a warning or as a pattern; and it must be desirable to contemplate his career, from its bright dawn to its early meridian and premature setting, under the guidance of an able and well-qualified biographer: although perfect impartiality, the great requisite in the historian of nations and of individuals, can yet perhaps be neither attained nor expected.

Under all these circumstances, we have perused with much interest the memoirs of Mr. Pitt now before us, which are written by a prelate who had been his tutor, and for some time his confidential secretary; and to whom at his death he intrusted the care of examining his papers, jointly with his brother Lord Chatham. We should, however, have been

more

more pleased with a plain and simple narrative, supported by a selection from those authentic documents to which the Bishop had access, than we have been by the plan actually pursued; since, though we could not suppose that Dr. Toulmin could write without a bias, he has occupied two large a portion of the work with laboured arguments, justifications of Mr. Pitt's measures, and eulogistic excursions. He has therefore given to the public a studied panegyric instead of a history; although much may still be found in the volumes to gratify the curiosity of those who read for amusement; and some parts, particularly among the private papers now brought to light, are important and valuable to those who wish to search deeper into the real characters of public men, or to investigate the secret springs of action in state-affairs.

It is generally known that Mr. Pitt suffered from indisposition, which interrupted the course of his pursuits on his first entrance at Cambridge in 1773: but that, as soon as his health was confirmed, his attention to his studies was assiduous and unremitted. By his father's particular recommendation, he read Barrow, in order to acquire copiousness of expression, and, among his Greek authors, studied with particular attention Thucydides and Polybius. It is also satisfactory to be informed by the best authority, that Mr. Pitt took great pleasure in comparing the opposite arguments contained in different speeches in Thucydides, Tacitus, and Sallust; that he was very fond of Locke's "Essay on the Human Understanding;" and that his zeal could scarcely be restrained from fathoming the very depths of pure mathematics: while it is a fact very characteristic of his order that, after having read all that is readable of the antient poets, he urged and prevailed on his tutor to attend him through the strange and obscure Cassandra of Lycophron.

During the time of Mr. Pitt's residence in Cambridge, (1778,) he lost his father; and the Bishop of Winchester has favoured us with the following letters written by that great man to his son while at the University, which we extract as fine specimens of strong parental affection, and of the playfulness of an elevated mind in its idle mood, parodying and twisting every thought and passage that occurred into its own train of images.

Burton Pynsent, Oct. 9. 1773.
Thursday's post brought us no letter from the dear traveller: we trust this day will prove more satisfactory; it is the happy day that gave us your brother; and will not be less in favour with all here, if it should give us, about four o'clock, an epistle from my dear William. By that hour, I reckon, we shall be wain in

our cups, and shall not fail to pour forth, with renewed joy, grateful libations over the much wished tidings of your prosperous progress towards your destination. We compute, that yesterday brought you to the venerable aspect of alma mater; and that you are invested to-day with the toga virilis. Your race of manly virtue, and useful knowledge is now begun, and may the favor of Heaven smile upon the noble career!

“Little — was really disappointed in not being in time to see you — a good mark for my young vivid friend. He is just as much compounded of the elements of *air* and *fire* as he was. A due proportion of terrestrial solidity will, I trust, come, and make him perfect. How happy, my loved boy, is it, that your mamma and I can tell ourselves, there is at Cambridge *one*, without a beard, “and all the elements so mixed in him, that nature might stand up, and say, This is a man.” I now take leave for to-day, not meaning this for what James calls a *regular* letter, but a flying thought, that wings itself towards my absent William. Horses are ready, and all is birth-day.

“Bradshaw has shone, this auspicious morning, in a very fine speech of congratulation; but I foresee, “his sun sets weeping in the lowly west,” that is, a fatal bowl of punch will, before night, quench this luminary of oratory. Adieu, again and again, sweet boy; and if you acquire health and strength every time I wish them to you, you will be a second Sampson, and, what is more, will, I am sure, keep your hair.

“Every good wish attends your kind fellow-traveller and chum; nor will he be forgot in our flowing bowls to-day.”

To this interesting letter, Lady Chatham added the following postscript:

“If more could be said expressive of feelings, my dearest dear boy, I would add a letter to this epistle, but as it is composed, I will only sign to its expressive contents,

“Your fond and loving mother,

“HESTER CHATHAM.”

“Burton Pynsent, Oct. 30. 1773.

“With what ease of mind and joy of heart I write to my loved William, since Mr. Wilson’s comfortable letter of Monday! I do not mean to address you as a sick man: I trust in heaven, that *convalescent* is the only title I am to give you in the ailing tribe; and that you are now enjoying the happy advantage of Dr. Glynn’s acquaintance, as one of the cheerful and witty sons of Apollo, in his poetic, not his medical, attribute. But, though I indulge with inexpressible delight the thought of your returning health, I cannot help being a little in pain, lest you should make *more haste than good speed* to be well. Your mamma has been before me, in suggesting that most useful proverb, *regarder pour mieux sauter*, useful to all, but to the ardent, necessary. You may indeed, my sweet boy, better than any one, practise this sage dictum, without any risque of being thrown out (as little James would say) in the *chace of learning*. All you want, at present, is *quiet*; with this, if your ardor *spontaneously* can be kept in, till you are stronger,

stronger, you will make noise enough. How happy the task, my noble amiable boy, to caution you *only against pursuing too much* all those liberal and praiseworthy things, to which less happy natures are perpetually to be spurred and driven! I will not tease you with too long a lecture in favor of *inaction*, and a competent *stupidity*, your two best tutors and companions at present. You have time to spare: consider there is but the *Encyclopædia*; and when you have mastered all that, what will remain? You will want, like Alexander, another world to conquer. Your mamma joins me in every word; and we know how much your affectionate mind can sacrifice to our earnest and tender wishes. Brothers and sisters are well; all feel about you, think and talk of you, as they ought. My affectionate remembrances go in great abundance to Mr. Wilson. Vive, Vale, is the unceasing prayer of your truly loving father,

‘CHATHAM.’—

“Hayes, Sunday, July 17. 1774.”

“Need I tell my dear William, that his letter, received this morning, diffused general joy here? To know that he is well and happy, and to be happy ourselves, is one and the same thing. I am glad that Chambers, Hall, and tufted Robe, continue to please; and make no doubt, that all the *nine*, in their several departments of charming, will sue for your love with all their powers of enchantment. I know too well the danger of a *new amour* or of a *reviving passion*, not to have some fears for your discretion. Give any of these alluring ladies the meeting by *day-light*, and in *their turns*; not becoming the *slave* of any one of them; nor be drawn into late hours by the temptation of their sweet converse. I rejoice that college is not yet evacuated of its learned garrison; and I hope the governor of this fortress of science, the master, or his admirable aides-de-camp, the tutors, will not soon repair to their respective excursions. Dr. Brown, to whom I desire to present my best compliments, is very obliging in accommodating you with a stable. I hope with this aid Mr. Wilson's computation may not be out above one half, to bring it at all near the mark. I conclude, a horse's allowance at Cambridge is upon the scale of a sizar's commons. However it prove, I am glad to think you and he will find more convenience for riding at every spare hour that offers. Stucky will carry Mr. Wilson safely, and, I trust, not unpleasantly. The brothers of the turf may hold the solid contents of his shoulders and forehead somewhat cheap; but by Dan's leave, he is no uncreditable clerical steed. No news yet from Pitt. James is here, the flower of schoolboys!

“Your loving father,
“CHATHAM.”

“Hayes, Sept. 2. 1774.”

“I write, my dearest William, the post just going out, only to thank you for your most welcome letter, and for the affectionate anxiety you express for my situation, left behind in the hospital, when our flying camp moved to Stowe. Gout has for the present subsided, and seems to intend deferring his favors till winter, if

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autumn will do its duty, and bless us with a course of steady weather; those days, which Madame de Sevigné so beautifully paints, *des jours flés d'or et de soye*.

"I have the pleasure to tell you, your mother and sisters returned perfectly well from Bucks, warm in praises of magnificent and princely Stowe; and full of due sentiments of the agreeable and kind reception they found there. No less than two dancings, in the short time they passed there. One escape from a wasp's nest, which proved only an adventure to talk of, by the incomparable skill and presence of mind of Mr. Cotton, driving out girls in his carriage with four very fine horses, and no postillion. They fell into an ambuscade of wasps more fierce than *Pandours*, who beset these coursers of spirit not inferior to *Xanthus* and *Podarges*, and stung them to madness; when disdaining the master's hand, he turned them short into a hedge, threw some of them, as he meant to do; and leaping down, seized the bridles of the leaders, which afforded time for your sisters to get out safe and sound, their honor, in point of courage, intact, as well as their bones; for they are celebrated not a little on their exposure in this alarming situation. I rejoice that your time passes to your mind, in the evacuated seat of the Muses. However, knowing that those heavenly ladies (unlike the London fair) delight most, and spread their choicest charms and treasures, in sweet retired solitude, I won't wonder that their true votary is happy to be alone with them. Mr. Pretyman will by no means spoil company, and I wish you joy of his return. How many commons have you lost of late? Whose fences have you broken; and in what lord of the manor's pound have any strays of science been found, since the famous adventure of catching the Horses with such admirable address and alacrity? I beg my affectionate compliments to Mr. Wilson, and hope you will both beware of an inclosed country for the future. Little James is still with us, doing penance for the *high living*, so well described to you in Mrs. Pam's excellent epistle. All loves follow my sweetest boy in more abundance than I have time or ability to express.

"I desire my best compliments to the kind and obliging master, who loves Cicero and you."

The subsequent letter was written within eight months of Lord Chatham's death:

"*Hayes, Sept. 22. 1777.*
"How can I employ my reviving pen so well as by addressing a few lines to the hope and comfort of my life, my dear William? You will have pleasure to see, under my own hand, that I mend every day, and that I am all but well. I have been this mornning to Camden-place, and sustained, most manfully, a visit, and all the idle talk thereof, for above an hour by Mr. Norman's clock; and returned home, untired, to dinner, where I eat like a farmer. Lord Mahon has confounded, not convinced, the incorrigible arrogant Dr. Wilson. Dr. Franklin's lightning-rebel as he is, stands proved

proved the more innocent; and Wilson's nobis must yield to the pointed conductors. On Friday, Lord Mahon's indefatigable spirit is to exhibit another incensdium, to lord mayor, foreign ministers, and all lovers of philosophy and the good of society; and means to illuminate the horizon with a little bonfire of twelve hundred faggots and a double edifice. Had our dear friend been born sooner, Nero and the second Charles could never have amused themselves by reducing to ashes the two noblest cities in the world. My hand begins to demand repose;—so, with my best compliments to Aristotle, Homer, Thucydides, Xenophon, not forgetting the civilians, and law of nations tribe, adieu, my dearest William.

“Your ever most affectionate father,
“CHATHAM.”

The volumes now printed do not contain any very new information with regard either to Mr. Pitt's introduction in parliament, or to his first administration in conjunction with Lord Shelburn. It is a curious fact that early in the course of the coalition-administration, he entertained the design of giving up any farther interference in politics; and returning to his original profession of the law: but the affair of Mr. Fox's India Bill soon confirmed him in different views. We cannot refrain from observing that Mr. Pitt's mode of acquiring power, on this occasion, has always appeared to us the least creditable part of his career; and his continuance in place, in opposition to the declared opinion of the House of Commons, to be the most unconstitutional act of his life. The Bishop of Winchester, however, seems to consider kings as the best judges of their own prerogative; and, as a complete proof of the excellence of Mr. Pitt's conduct, he has indiscreetly published some extracts from confidential letters of George III. to that minister, in which the sovereign *unguardedly* applies the *unjust*—or if *deliberately* the *calumnious*—designation of an unprincipled and desperate faction to the Opposition of that period.

During the parliament which continued sitting from 1784 to 1790, the principal matters of colonial and domestic policy were the India Bill, finance-measures, the discussion of the Test and Corporation Acts and of the Slave-trade, the impeachment of Mr. Hastings, and the Regency question; and the right reverend author would prove that on all these, as well as on every other occasion in his life, Mr. Pitt acted in the best possible manner. We have often expressed our opinion on each of these subjects. With regard to the impeachment, indeed, Mr. Pitt's conduct was consummately politic: for he took away from a dangerous rival the possibility of coming into power, while at the same time he thus kept the Opposition, particularly Mr. Burke, dependant on his majorities.

ities. With respect to Mr. Pitt's India Bill, year after year it was altered, modified, and explained by further acts, till the Directors found the Board of Control to be, as Mr. Pitt sometimes amused the House by calling it, a Board of *active* Control; and till they perceived that, after all Mr. Pitt's declarations about the inviolable nature of chartered rights, and all the obloquy which he had excited against Mr. Fox's Bill, his own, as far as it was effectual, was substantially the same. We doubt not, although Dr. Tomline advances much of what seems to us to be sophistry in his comments on this subject, that he well recollects the pamphlet published by Mr. Sheridan, in 1788, containing a comparison of the two bills, to which no answer was even attempted at the time by any of the minister's adherents.

Of Mr. Pitt's foreign policy during this period, we can speak with more approbation. The assistance which he afforded to the Stadtholder in 1787, and the treaty of defensive alliance concluded with Prussia and Holland in 1788, were both transacted with much judgment.

In the parliament which commenced its labours in 1791, Mr. Pitt exerted himself very nobly in favor of the abolition of the slave-trade; and the Bishop of Winchester judiciously inserts a long extract from the Minister's speech on that occasion, which is beyond comparison the finest specimen of his eloquence that is extant. On this subject, as well as with respect to the Roman Catholic question, it must be admitted that Mr. Pitt did not allow any personal consideration to stifle his voice: but that, in spite of the power which overwhelmed his efforts, and the inveterate prejudices which surrounded him, he always boldly expressed the conclusions of his judgment and the dictates of his enlightened conscience. In supporting the penalties against Protestant Dissenters, however, we can neither discover his consistency nor praise his judgment: though his biographer extracts with seeming approbation some very violent remarks of Mr. Burke on that subject. — As to Mr. Pitt's foreign policy in the years 1790 and 1791, nothing could be more admirable than his remonstrance to Spain after the injuries committed in Nootka Sound, or more satisfactory than the convention which ensued. We cannot speak with the same praise of the Russian armament: * Con-

* The Bishop of Winchester, by incorporating in his pages an extravagant charge brought by Mr. Burke against Mr. Fox, founded on a visit made by Mr. Adair to Petersburg in the year 1791, has involved himself in a controversy with the last-named gentleman; for an account of which we refer to our notice of Mr. Adair's "Two Letters," and of a "Reply to Mr. Adair" in the subsequent article.

considering the unimportance of Ochakow, the general friendly disposition of Catherine to England, and the eve of the revolution in France, it seems to have been most impolitic to think of challenging a war with Russia at such a moment. The reader will probably be pleased with the following letters from Mr. Pitt: the first relating to Spain, and addressed in October, 1790, to an English gentleman in France; the second relating to Russia, and written to our minister at Petersburg.

Dear Sir,
I am extremely glad to find, by your letter, that you have succeeded so well in opening a confidential intercourse with the leaders of what appears to be the ruling party in France. Great advantages may perhaps be derived from this circumstance, in the present critical situation. I imagine, indeed, from your account, that we can hardly hope, in case war should take place with Spain, and should last for any time, that France will not ultimately take part in it.

But I think there seems to be a reasonable prospect that the persons, with whom you communicate, may be brought to make such representations to the Spanish court, even if a rupture should have taken place, as may lead to a speedy restoration of peace, by a settlement of the points in dispute, conformably to the principles on which we have hitherto insisted. At least it may be fairly expected, that no immediate decision will be taken in France, to give actual succour to Spain, on the commencement of hostilities. And this point alone, if nothing more should finally be obtained, will be of great consequence, as it will give us considerable advantage in our first operations.

With respect, however, to the steps to be taken for bringing Spain to accede to our terms, great care must be taken that the French shall not appear as mediators, still less as abettors; and on this point I wait with great impatience for the more particular account which you promise to send me, of Lord Gower's ideas and yours, after the next interview which you were to have with the members of the diplomatic committee. I am inclined to think it may be advisable that Lord Gower should be empowered, on the first news of a rupture, to communicate to the French ministry a statement of the terms on which Mr. Fitzherbert has been instructed to insist, and of the grounds on which they are supported. If such statement should be laid by the ministry before the diplomatic committee, or the national assembly, and a decree could be obtained, declaring that those terms ought to be accepted by Spain, such a measure would be highly satisfactory.

But I can hardly imagine that any thing so decisive can be obtained, unless they should be so far satisfied with our conduct, as to determine not in any case to support Spain, until she is willing to accede to the terms which we have proposed. Even, however, should we be so fortunate as to obtain such a determination, it would not be in our power to enforce it, unless we were to resort to the use of force. The only course, therefore, which we have left, is to persevere in our present policy, and to wait until we are enabled to obtain such a determination as we require.

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If this should happen, it is to be observed, that the war having once taken place, these terms may not appear to us sufficient, unless they should be accepted by Spain, within a *very short period*. The desire of restoring tranquillity would, in all events, incline this country to great moderation; but, if the war should last any time, and our operations should have been successful, we shall hardly be expected to make peace, without gaining some farther advantage to compensate for our expence. This, however, must be a point wholly of subsequent consideration. If, instead of a decisive approbation of our terms, the assembly or the committee should approve them only in part, and should suggest any different terms, which they may think reasonable, the situation will be much more delicate. Very little good can follow from such a measure, except that by the time which would probably be necessary for answers both from this country and Spain, any hostile decision on the part of France would be retarded, which I have already stated to be a considerable advantage to us. No progress, however, will be made in this way, either towards the restoration of peace (supposing a rupture to have taken place) or towards keeping France ultimately out of the war; as it must be impossible for us, at the suggestion of a third power, to recede, in any point, from the terms of the ultimatum which we have sent to Spain.

“ There are two other points, to which it is essential to attend in the whole of this business.

“ The first of these is, what seems, indeed, by your letter to be already fully understood, that, whatever confidential communications may take place with the diplomatic committee, for the sake of bringing them to promote our views, no ostensible intercourse can be admitted but through the medium of accredited ministers, or the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and that in the name of the King.

“ The second point, which is of still more importance, is, that no assurances shall be given, directly or indirectly, which go farther than that this country means to persevere in the neutrality, which it has hitherto scrupulously observed, with respect to the internal dissensions of France, and from which it will never depart, unless the conduct held there should make it indispensable as an act of self-defence; and that we are sincerely desirous of preserving peace, and of cultivating, in general, a friendly intercourse and good understanding between the two nations. But the utmost care is necessary, under the present circumstances, to use no language, which can lead to an expectation of our taking measures to forward the internal views of any political party, or of our being ripe to form any alliance between the two countries, which, even if such a thing should be really wished in France, various events might make it impossible for us to accede to, and which would, in any case, at least require great consideration.

— I am, with truth and regard,

“ Dear Sir, yours, most sincerely,

W. PITT.

TO MR. EWART.

"My dear Sir,

Holland, May 24. 1791.

"You are so fully apprized, from your own observation, and from our repeated conversations *, of all which has passed here, in relation to affairs abroad, and of every sentiment of mine on the subject, that I can have nothing fresh to add in this letter.

"I wish, however, to repeat my earnest and anxious desire, that you should find means of informing the King of Prussia, as openly and explicitly as possible, of the real state of the business, and of the true motives of our conduct. He knows, I am persuaded, too well, the effect which opinion and public impression must always have in this country, either to complain of our change of measures, or to wonder at it, if the true cause be fully explained to him. You perfectly know, that no man could be more eagerly bent than I was, on a steady adherence to the line which we had at first proposed, of going all lengths to enforce the terms of the strict *status quo*; and I am still as much persuaded as ever, that if we could have carried the support of the country with us, the risque and expence of the struggle, even if Russia had not submitted without a struggle, would not have been more than the object was worth.

"But notwithstanding this was my own fixed opinion, I saw, with certainty, in a very few days after the subject was first discussed in parliament, that the prospect of obtaining a support, sufficient to carry this line through with vigor and effect, was absolutely desperate. We did indeed carry our question in the House of Commons, by not an inconsiderable majority; and we shall, I am persuaded, continue successful in resisting all the attempts of opposition, as long as the negotiation is depending. But from what I know of the sentiments of the greatest part of that majority, and of many of the warmest friends of government, I am sure, that if, in persisting on the line of the *status quo*, we were to come to the point of actually calling for supplies to support the war, and were to state, as would then be indispensable, the precise ground on which it arose, that we should either not carry such a question, or carry it only by so weak a division, as would nearly amount to a defeat. This opinion I certainly formed neither hastily nor willingly; nor could I easily make a sacrifice more painful to myself, than I have done in yielding to it. But feeling the circumstances to be such as I have stated them, the only question that remained was, whether we should persist, at all hazards, in pushing our first determination, though without a chance of rendering it effectual to its object, or whether we should endeavor to do what appears to be the next best, when what we wished to do became impracticable.

"To speak plainly: the obvious effect of our persisting would have been, to risque the existence of the present government, and

* Mr. Ewart had been in England; and only lately returned to Berlin.

with it, the whole of our system both at home and abroad. The personal part of this consideration, it would have been our duty to overlook, and I trust we should all have been ready to do so, if by any risque of our own, we could have contributed to the attainment of a great and important object for this country and its allies: but the consequence must evidently have been the reverse. The overthrow of our system here, at the same time that it hazarded driving the government at home into a state of absolute confusion, must have shaken the whole of our system abroad. It is not difficult to foresee what must have been the consequence to Prussia, of a change effected by an opposition to the very measures taken in concert with that court, and resting on the avowed ground of our present system of alliance.

“ On these considerations it is, that we have felt the necessity of changing our plan, and endeavoring to find the best expedient we can, for terminating the business, without extremities. Fortunately, the having succeeded in stopping the proposed representation to Russia, has prevented our being as pointedly committed as there was reason to apprehend we might have been. The modifications which have been suggested, the recommendation of them from Spain, the prospect of bringing that court to join in a subsequent guaranty of the Turkish possessions, and the chance of perhaps bringing the Emperor to accede to our system, are all circumstances which give an opening for extricating us from our present difficulty. You are so fully master of the whole of those details, that I shall not enlarge upon them. My great object is, that you should be able to satisfy the King of Prussia, of the *strong necessity* under which we have acted, and that we really had no other choice, with a view either to his interests, or to those which we are most bound to consult at home.

I am, &c.

“ W. PITT.”

With the declaration of war by France against Great Britain and Holland, the memoirs at present conclude; and a great part of the last volume is occupied by statements and arguments to shew that France was entirely the aggressor, mostly taken from a party-work which some of our readers may recollect to have been published at the time of the French war by Dr. Marsh. The account before us is therefore incomplete, and does not call for a full and final judgment from our tribunal. In the preface, however, the Bishop announces his intention, as soon as his avocations will permit, to add another volume to this biography, containing the sequel of Mr. Pitt's history; viz. from the commencement of the French revolution to his death; and, notwithstanding the absolute bias of the production, we look forward with expectation to the fulfilment of this promise, on account of the valuable materials which the right reverend author so exclusively possesses.

ART.

ART. III. *Two Letters from Mr. Adair to the Bishop of Winchester*, in Answer to the Charge of a High Treasonable Misdemeanor brought by his Lordship against Mr. Fox and himself, in his Life of the Right Honourable William Pitt. 8vo. pp. 87. Longman and Co. 1821.

ART. IV. *A Reply to the Charges of Robert Adair, Esq., against the Bishop of Winchester, &c.* 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

IT appears that in the spring of 1791 Mr. Adair resolved to visit Vienna and Petersburg, induced partly by curiosity to see what was passing at foreign courts at that eventful period, and partly by a desire to qualify himself for diplomatic situations. This determination was entirely the result of his own deliberations: but, having formed it, he communicated it to his friends, and among the rest to Mr. Fox, who did not encourage the plan. As, however, Mr. Adair persisted in his intention, Mr. Fox desired that their intercourse might not be suspended by absence, but that Mr. Adair would send him such information about public affairs abroad as his opportunities should enable him to collect; and, lest the correspondence, if intercepted, might prejudice any individuals abroad, a cypher or short-hand was concerted between them, in which Mr. Adair was to write.

At the time just mentioned, England was at peace both with Austria and Russia; though, on account of the claim of the latter to the cession of Oczakow from the Porte, some communications not entirely friendly had recently passed between the courts of London and Petersburg. Mr. Adair seems to have left this country for the Continent, and to have directed his course first to Vienna, early in the spring of 1791. On the 28th of March, on a discussion taking place in the House of Commons on the subject of Oczakow, Mr. Pitt found that he had a majority of only 93 in his favour; and he soon afterward sent a messenger to the court of Berlin, to announce to our ally the King of Prussia the improbability that this country would eventually engage in a war with the Czarina. On another division, which took place in April in a fuller house, Mr. Pitt's majority was reduced to 80. Finding that the country was not with him in this affair, he dispatched Mr. Fawkener to Petersburg, to accommodate the differences as smoothly as he could, and perhaps with some ulterior views, since Mr. Fawkener afterward attended the conference at Pilnitz: but, however this may be, one thing seems clear, that when Mr. Fawkener left London Mr. Pitt had given up all thoughts of compulsory measures to prevent the cession of Oczakow, and that a Russian war was quite out of the question.

tion.*— Mr. Fawkenor arrived at Petersburg on the 20th of May; and some few days afterward, Mr. Adair, who had been passing all this interval at Vienna and Warsaw, paid his visit to the Russian capital. Here he met a friend, and old school-fellow, who begged to be the bearer of any dispatch that he might wish to send to Mr. Fox; and to whom, consequently, Mr. Adair intrusted a letter written in cypher. This letter, or a copy, or the contents of it, or the fact of Mr. Adair having written from Petersburg in cypher to Mr. Fox, came by some means to the knowledge of the English government, and the circumstance served for a while as the gossip of the day. Mr. Pitt also hinted in the House of Commons that better terms might have been made with Russia, had it not been for some transactions of notoriety which might perhaps give rise to a more serious discussion at another time; and Mr. Fox, in answer to this insinuation, expressed himself ready to meet any inquiry. Mr. Dundas sarcastically observed "that Mr. Fox took great pains to procure accurate intelligence;" and to this Mr. Fox replied, "that the rumours to which he had alluded had reached him in London, and were matter of notoriety. It was therefore proper to inquire whether or not they were true. With respect to taking pains to obtain accurate information, if he, or any man, took pains to inform himself on subjects in which the interests of his country were materially concerned, were he even to go abroad for the express purpose of obtaining such a knowledge of the dispositions and intentions of foreign courts as might enable him to give useful advice at home, he would be entitled to thanks instead of blame." No steps were ever afterward taken by Mr. Pitt to bring on the "more serious discussion."

Mr. Burke, it is said, about the same time learned some particulars of Mr. Adair's visit to Petersburg from one of his private friends who was connected with government: but, though Mr. B.'s connection with Mr. Fox was not at that time dissolved, he asked no information from Mr. Fox about the real state of the case; and when Mr. Adair himself, after his return from abroad, was the channel of confidential communication between the Duke of Portland and Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, moreover, made no inquiries of Mr. Adair, either directly or through the medium of the Duke of Portland. He even continued on terms of friendship with Mr. Adair after the dissolution of his intimacy with the large body of the Whigs, and until 1797; when a surreptitious publication took place of that strange pamphlet against Mr. Fox, which it appears Mr. Burke had written so long before as 1791, and delivered to

* See also Mr. Pitt's letter to Mr. Ewart, p. 363.

the Duke of Portland under a strict injunction of secrecy. Among the charges was contained the following, founded on Mr. Adair's visit to the Continent, which Mr. Burke distorted into a sort of Jacobin mission.

“ The laws and constitution of the kingdom,” says Mr. Burke, “ entrust the sole and exclusive right of treating with foreign potentates to the King. This is an undisputed part of the legal prerogative of the crown. However, notwithstanding this, Mr. Fox, without the knowledge or participation of any one person in the House of Commons, with whom he was bound by every party-principle, in matters of delicacy and importance, confidentially to communicate, thought proper to send Mr. Adair, as his representative, and with his cypher, to St. Petersburg, there to frustrate the objects for which the minister from the crown was authorised to treat. He succeeded in this his design, and did actually frustrate the King's minister in some of the objects of his negotiation.

“ This proceeding of Mr. Fox does not, as I conceive, amount to absolute high treason ; Russia, though on bad terms, not having been then declaredly at war with this kingdom. But such a proceeding is, in law, not very remote from that offence, and is undoubtedly a most unconstitutional act, and a high treasonable misdemeanour.

“ The legitimate and sure mode of communication between this nation and foreign powers is rendered uncertain, precarious, and treacherous, by being divided into two channels, one with the government, one with the head of a party in opposition to that government ; by which means the foreign powers can never be assured of the real authority or validity of any public transaction whatsoever.

“ On the other hand, the advantage taken of the discontent which at that time prevailed in parliament and in the nation, to give to an individual an influence directly against the government of his country, in a foreign court, has made a highway into England for the intrigues of foreign courts in our affairs. This is a sore evil ; an evil from which, before this time, England was more free than any other nation. Nothing can preserve us from that evil — which connects cabinet factions abroad with popular factions here — but the keeping sacred the crown as the only channel of communication with every other nation.

“ This proceeding of Mr. Fox has given a strong countenance and an encouraging example to the doctrines and practices of the Revolution and Constitutional societies, and of other mischievous societies of that description, who, without any legal authority, and even without any corporate capacity, are in the habit of proposing, and to the best of their power of forming, leagues and alliances with France.

“ This proceeding, which ought to be reprobated on all the general principles of government, is, in a more narrow view of things, not less reprehensible. It tends to the prejudice of the whole of the Duke of Portland's late party, by discrediting the principles

principles upon which they supported Mr. Fox in the Russian business, as if they of that party also had proceeded in their parliamentary opposition on the same mischievous principles which actuated Mr. Fox in sending Mr. Adair on his embassy."

On the appearance of this pamphlet, Mr. Burke disclaimed the act and the intention of publication : but this victim of his imagination and of his passions did not retract any of the contents of the memorial itself, and merely corrected with his own hand a copy of it, which was left among his papers at his decease. Mr. Fox was severely pained at the discovery of the duplicity, the treachery, and the rancour, of one whom he had loved and revered, and believed to be a sincere friend : but he considered the tissue of extravagance as beneath his notice. Mr. Adair, however, in a letter signed with his name, and published in the *Morning Chronicle* of February 14. 1797, declared that he was ready, if required, to enter on the justification of Mr. Fox and of himself without delay, but that he considered it in the mean time as sufficient for him to affirm that the charge brought by Mr. Burke was "*false.*"

Mr. Fox entered into administration in 1806, in conjunction with Lord Grenville and many other former coadjutors and adherents of Mr. Pitt, and by them Mr. Adair was appointed ambassador to Vienna. After Mr. Fox's death, and the dismissal of Lords Grenville and Grey, the old gossip about Petersburg being revived in the violence of party-disputes, Lord Holland in the House of Lords replied to Lord Mulgrave on the subject ; and in the House of Commons Dr. Lawrence, one of Mr. Burke's executors, justified Mr. Adair. The new administration, also, at the head of which was the Duke of Portland, continued Mr. Adair as the resident at Vienna ; and, on the interruption of our amity with that court, he was appointed to Constantinople, and afterward again to Vienna. During all this time, Mr. Adair's political principles were well known, and he did not in any respect compromise them ; and in the autumn of 1810 he returned to his seat on the Opposition-benches of the House of Commons.

In 1809, Dr. Parr published a work on the character of Mr. Fox, and in the course of it commented on the improbability of Mr. Burke's charge ; rightly insisting that Mr. Pitt would not have lost the opportunity if he could have convicted, or even plausibly accused, Mr. Fox of treasonable misdemeanors ; and that, on Mr. Pitt's death, those who had the best means of learning the contents of the intercepted papers would scarcely have formed an union with a traitor, or have appointed an accomplice in treason to represent his Majesty in foreign courts.

At an early period of the present year, the Bishop of Winchester published the *Memoirs of Mr. Pitt*, which we have examined in the preceding article, and in which (as we intimated) he introduced *verbatim* the whole of the above charge made by Mr. Burke ; observing that he “ found the accuracy of it attested by authentic documents among Mr. Pitt’s papers ;” and adding, “ I am not aware that any attempt was ever made by Mr. Fox or his friends to controvert these facts, or to invalidate this reasoning.” In consequence of these circumstances, Mr. Adair wrote a private letter to the Bishop, stating the simple tale of his visit to the Continent : denying that he had been actually sent to Petersburg by Mr. Fox, or that he went for the purpose of frustrating the King’s ministers, or that he had to his knowledge actually contravened any of their measures ; requesting the Bishop to consult the Parliamentary Register for proof that Mr. Fox had asserted the absence of all criminality in any thing that he had done, by challenging immediate inquiry : citing the *Morning Chronicle* to evince that he had himself at the time rebutted the facts alleged in Mr. Burke’s charge ; referring to Dr. Parr’s character of Mr. Fox to shew that an attempt *had* been made to invalidate Mr. Burke’s reasoning ; and desiring the Bishop to correct these errors of fact in his work. To this letter Dr. Tomline made no answer ; and a second edition of his *Memoirs of Mr. Pitt* being advertized, Mr. Adair wrote a note to inquire whether he might expect justice to be rendered to him in that new impression. The Bishop of Winchester then replied by a letter, arguing that the truth of the charge was made out by Mr. Adair’s admissions that he went to Petersburg after having concerted a cypher with Mr. Fox, that he conversed there freely on all public affairs, and that he did actually write to Mr. Fox in cypher ; maintaining also that, in spite of Mr. Adair’s explicit denial of any criminal purpose or act, his own confession of these facts shewed that Mr. Fox and he had been guilty of what Burke termed “ a high treasonable misdemeanor ;” insisting that Dr. Parr had not attempted to invalidate Mr. Burke’s reasoning, because Dr. Parr had admitted in the outset “ that he was not enough acquainted with the circumstances of this transaction either to justify or condemn the whole of it ;” and closing by a remark that, in the second edition, he had not taken any notice of Mr. Adair’s letter to him.

Finding that Bishop Tomline persevered in his statements, Mr. Adair published his first Letter, together with a second ; the last written with a degree of asperity which nothing but a conviction of the Bishop’s fixed design to withhold justice

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from Mr. Fox's memory, and from himself, could in any degree justify. In this second letter, Mr. A. enlarges on all the topics contained in the first. He dwells on the absurdity of imputing a design to thwart the King's minister at Petersburg, when the supposed agent went rambling round by Vienna, (although Austria had at that time signed a separate peace,) and did not arrive at Petersburg till some time after the King's minister; and he challenges the Bishop to prove, from 'the authentic documents among Mr. Pitt's correspondence,' that Mr. Fox did in any respect thwart the King's minister by his agency. He also defies the right reverend biographer to 'prove that any one object in dispute with Russia was either counteracted or suspended for one instant by Mr. Fox, except through the medium of Parliament.' — As to the pamphlet of Mr. Burke, from which the Bishop had incorporated a part into a grave and historical work, Mr. Adair urges that it was originally written for the exclusive purpose of withdrawing the Duke of Portland from his connection with Mr. Fox; that the very charge, that Mr. Fox had not communicated with those with whom he was bound to communicate, shews that there was no grand party-conspiracy in the case; and that, instead of treason against his country, it was Mr. Burke's great aim to prove that Mr. Fox had been guilty of high treason to the Duke of Portland. Mr. Adair, moreover, shews how easily at the time of the publication of this pamphlet, if he had chosen, he might have retorted the whole charge on Mr. Burke.

'Only that it would not have been decorous,' says he, 'to disturb the dying hours of a great man, how easily might I have held up to him a mirror in which he would have seen the monstrous absurdity of his accusation! Following his own precedent, and loading my counter-charge of treason with all its appropriate technicalities, I might have set forth — "That whereas in the year 1779, his Majesty was engaged in suppressing a rebellion which had broken out among his subjects in America against his crown and dignity, and the lawful authority of Parliament; and was then likewise involved in a war with France and Spain for the defence of his realms. — And whereas his said rebellious subjects had, with a view still further to endanger his crown, and reduce these kingdoms under the power of a foreign enemy, entered into a treaty of defensive alliance with the States of Holland, his Majesty's old and faithful Protestant allies. — And whereas a copy of the said treasonable act was found upon the person of President Henry Lawrens, about that time made prisoner by one of his Majesty's ships of war while on his voyage to the States General, with intent to sign and give effect to the purposes of the said treaty. — And whereas, he the aforesaid Henry Lawrens was brought to London and committed to the Tower, there to abide the punishment

ment due to this and his other treasons. — Nevertheless, the said Edmund Burke, against his duty and allegiance to our Sovereign Lord the King, and without the knowledge or participation of any one member of the House of Commons, with whom he was bound on every party-principle in matters of delicacy and importance confidentially to communicate, did plot and contrive to visit, and did actually visit, him the said Henry Lawrens in his prison, in order to comfort and assist him in his said rebellion and treason.

“ And further, that the said Edmund Burke did in full Parliament call the said Henry Lawrens ‘ a worthy, enlightened, and respectable character,’ thereby approving and justifying all his said treason and rebellion.

“ And further, that the said Edmund Burke boasted of, and read from his seat in Parliament, his correspondence with Dr. Franklin, then one of the chief rebels carrying on the war against his Majesty in America,” &c. &c. &c.

‘ What would have been Mr. Burke’s reply to such stuff as this? Why nothing that would not have been an answer to his own charge against Mr. Fox and myself.’

These Two Letters have produced ‘ A Reply to the Charges of Robert Adair, Esq., against the Bishop of Winchester.’ The principal arguments in this pamphlet, which is dated from Lincoln’s Inn, but seems the production of a clerical rather than of a legal disputant, are copied from the Bishop’s answer to Mr. Adair’s first letter, with some few observations on extraneous matters. It seems that Mr. Pitt, in his will, expressed his wish that his brother and the Bishop of Lincoln (the see which the present Bishop of Winchester then held) should look over his papers, and settle his affairs, but did not name the latter as one of his executors; and that this prelate, on his own construction of the passage mentioned, procured probate jointly with Lord Chatham. Mr. Adair, in his second Letter, had in one place admitted that the Bishop was authorized by Mr. Pitt in his last moments to look over his papers with Lord Chatham, but in another place he termed the Bishop ‘ a self-created executor.’ These two passages are considered by the writer of the Reply as absolutely irreconcilable; and most plain people, too, will be somewhat surprised to hear that the learned gentleman proves (in page 21.) that a fact, however flatly denied, may with great propriety be still represented as uncontroverted.

ART. V. Memoirs of the Life of Anne Boleyn, Queen of Henry the Eighth. By Miss Benger, Author of *Memoirs of Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton*, John Tobin, &c. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

WE have paid the due tribute to the former biographical productions with which Miss Benger has favoured us : but we cannot congratulate her on having now selected a subject capable of much novel illustration, since almost every reader of history is familiar with the circumstances of Anne Boleyn's life ; every Protestant writer, who has treated of the reign of Henry the Eighth, has done justice to her character ; and the outline, which is given in Herbert or in Hume, leaves little unsaid for any future biographer or collector of anecdotes to supply. All that remained to be done, however, Miss Benger has done. Besides sifting the usual authorities for that period, such as Strype's *History of the Reformation*, Cavendish's *Memoirs of Cardinal Wolsey*, &c., she has consulted Hall's and Stow's *Chronicles* for minute descriptions of the shews and processions, Wiatt's *Memoirs of Queen Anne Boleyn*, and those original letters of the royal lovers which still remain preserved in the British Museum. By means of these researches, although she has not been enabled to place any circumstance of history in a new point of view, and has not discovered any new facts of the slightest importance, Miss B. has had an opportunity, of which she has freely availed herself, of diversifying the volumes before us with many curious and amusing extracts.

In the detail of facts, Miss Benger is on the whole faithful, but one or two inaccuracies struck us in the perusal, and they occur in important passages. Thus, for instance, she states that Henry allowed the Commons to exhibit against Wolsey articles of impeachment ; when, in fact, the proceedings against him, which were more in the nature of a bill of pains and penalties than of an impeachment in the modern sense of that word, originated with the Lords, and consisted of 44 articles drawn up and presented by them to the King, and then sent down to the Commons. So again, in describing the tournament at Greenwich, Miss B. entirely omits the incident of the Queen dropping her handkerchief, and speaks of the King as quitting the field by 'a preconcerted movement.' Yet the trifling and probably casual incident, to which we have alluded, taking its colour from his former suspicions, became in the King's apprehension "confirmation strong as proof of Holy Writ," and the immediate explosion of his fury was a natural consequence. Miss Benger's statement of 'a preconcerted movement' is, moreover,

over, quite unintelligible; and no clue is given to the King's violence and precipitancy in hurrying on the judicial murder of his innocent Queen, which so closely ensued.

With regard to the delineation of characters, also, we think that the fair author is unfortunate. Entirely possessed with the merits of Anne Boleyn, and appreciating at their just value the benefits which have eventually resulted from the Reformation, she seems to consider the conduct of individuals to her heroine as a test of their general character, and to term them liberal or bigoted in proportion as they approved or rejected the new doctrines: but the principle of general toleration was not at that time known by either party; and the only difference on this point between them was, that one party imagined that no person could obtain salvation without adopting the doctrines of their forefathers, while the other asserted that none could be saved without believing doctrines first promulged within their own memory. Bigotry, certainly, was not exclusively confined to the favourers of the antient faith; and the conduct of Cranmer, in forcing Edward the Sixth to put his signature to the sentence of Joan Boathier, shews how strongly that common failing clung even to the wisest and most benevolent of the reformers. Yet, while Miss Benger gives only the fairest side of Cranmer's picture, she does not omit to set forth in a prominent point of view that bigotry which is the only stain in the character of Sir Thomas More; and that man of sweet and amiable temper, of inflexible integrity, honest even in his errors, and a martyr to his principles, she takes care to stigmatize as 'cruel' and 'cowardly.' Her prejudices carry her still farther, and she most unjustly accuses the Chancellor of being accessory to the contrivance of false and perjured testimony:

'It was impossible,' says she, 'but that More should be the inveterate enemy of Anne Boleyn. It was not alone to her pride or to her vanity that he objected, her passion for grandeur, or her taste for luxury. To her merits he was not only blind, but hostile; and as candor never dwelt in the breast of a persecutor, he eagerly lent himself to the fabrication of malice and calumny, to justify the prejudice which he had conceived, and the hatred which he tacitly acknowledged.'

It has been the misfortune of Wolsey to have his character handed down by Polydore Virgil, who suffered imprisonment by his order, and always entertained a settled pique against him: but the best eulogy on his character is to compare Henry's conduct, during his administration, with any other fifteen years in the reign. The war against France was indeed throughout impolitic, and it cannot be denied that the hope of

the papal see too strongly biassed the Cardinal in support of the interests of Charles the Fifth: but there is every reason for believing that the evils of his domestic administration have been much overcharged. He is admitted to have exercised his duties as Chancellor, when he had the greatest opportunity of practising extortion and oppression, with uniform impartiality and unimpeachable integrity; and yet he is charged with being induced to connive at the perversion of justice practised among his officers in the legative courts, by a participation in the profits. It is probable, from the King's imperious temper, that the Cardinal only acquiesced in those arbitrary exactions which he bore the odium of suggesting; and it is certain that, when the insurgents could find no security for their good behaviour, as required, he offered himself as their bail. He was a munificent patron of learning, and a reformer of the monastic institutions on a plan which his friend Erasmus must have admired; correcting abuses where they existed, and applying funds, which had been misapplied, to the better purposes of educating the clergy and promoting learning. He was, also, considering the spirit of the age, remarkably tolerant to the new opinions. These virtues, indeed, hastened his disgrace, for bigots of all parties joined against him; and the priests and monks chiming in with Anne Boleyn's friends, who were always jealous of his ascendancy, seized the King's humour in the first moments of disappointment, and wrought the favourite's downfall. Miss Benger, however, has been transported beyond the general current of opinion as it is adverse to the Cardinal, and her zeal has transformed him into a bigot and a persecutor. We will extract her character of Wolsey at length:

‘Thus fell the first, perhaps the only despotic minister of Henry the Eighth. His character has been often pourtrayed; but one of its most remarkable features, that overweening respect for the Church which disposed him to hold all other objects and duties subordinate to its dignity, appears to have been generally overlooked or forgotten. The austere Becket was not more zealous to vindicate the prerogative and exalt the honors of ecclesiastical supremacy, than the gay, voluptuous, and insinuating Wolsey. The master-passion of his soul was to restore to its former omnipotence that papal throne, of which he always hoped to obtain the sovereignty. Even his love of learning, in other respects the emanation of a munificent spirit, was modified by this sentiment. In founding colleges, he sought but to raise ornaments for the pulpit. To the laity he left the comforts of ignorance. He resisted every effort to enlighten the people, watched over every publication with a jealousy not unworthy of the holy office, and directed against such as were either suspected or detected of heretical

heretical pravity, a rigorous prosecution. It escaped not Wolsey's penetration, that it was from the same ray of light that emanated civil and religious liberty; and his abhorrence of Lutheranism flowed perhaps from the impression, that the rights of conscience were inseparable from the common rights of humanity: yet his political sagacity failed to discover, that the persecution by which the heretic was devoted to the flames, threw a sacred halo over those doctrines he would have impugned, and that sect which he abhorred.

To shew that such impressions are quite unfounded, and that Wolsey was not such a 'rigorous persecutor of heretical pravity' as Miss Benger supposes, it may perhaps be sufficient to set forth one of the articles exhibited by the Lords against him.

"Also, whereas in the Parliament chamber and in open Parliament communication and devices were had and moved, wherein mention was, by an incident, made of matters touching heresies and erroneous sects; it was spoken and reported by one bishop there being present, and confirmed by a good number of the same bishops, in presence of all the lords spiritual and temporal then assembled, that two of the said bishops were minded and desired to repair unto the University of Cambridge for examination, reformation, and correction of such errors as then seemed, and were reported to reign among the students and scholars of the same, as well touching the Lutheran sect and opinion, as otherwise; the Lord Cardinal informed of the good minds and intents of the said two bishops in that behalf, expressly inhibited and commanded them not to do so. By means whereof, the same error (as they affirm) crept more abroad, and took greater place; saying, furthermore, that it was not in their defaults that the said heresies were not punished, but in the Lord Cardinal; and that it was no reason any blame or lack should be arrected unto them for this offence. Whereby it evidently appeareth, that the said Lord Cardinal, besides all other his heinous offences, hath been the impeacher and disturber of due and direct correction of heresies, being highly to the danger and peril of the whole body and good Christian people of this realm."

We have been the more particular in these strictures, because impartiality is the first duty of an historian or biographer; and a view of the events of past ages is principally useful in enabling us to look at facts with the calmness of indifferent spectators, and to contemplate the human character without those biasses and party-feelings which are so apt to warp our judgment in estimating the conduct of our contemporaries. We thus detect the imperfections of the finest characters, and still find some chequer of good mixed with the worst: we see desirable ends sometimes produced by vicious means, and principles which we venerate accom-

panied by conduct which we abhor: we perceive how complicated and how mysterious a subject the heart of man is; we find ourselves compelled to distinguish between the cause and the partizan; and we learn to appreciate the motives and the conduct of those, who espouse opinions which we disapprove, with candour and with indulgence. Our bigotry thus insensibly rubs off, our party-spirit is forgotten, and we see the common principles and general motives of human nature in a more extensive view and on a juster scale than we were before able to observe them. History, when so studied, is the handmaid of truth and the instructress of life: but, when considered in any other light, she is degraded from her pre-eminence, deprived of her prerogative, and reduced to the meanest rank, acting as a mere pander to our passions and our prejudices.

As to Miss Benger's style, we must observe that she writes with fluency and vigour, but is too much an elaborate hunter of elaborate phrases. In one place, we are told that 'Wiatt, in devouring the classical pages of Greece and Rome, imbibed the spirit and received the *vaticidal* inspiration which is only to be communicated or received by kindred genius.*' We remember that Warton somewhere employs the word *vaticinal*, which is affected enough; and we were willing to give this fair author the same indulgence which she shews to Henry the Eighth when commenting on a passage in one of his letters which she found herself unable to construe: viz. 'The inexplicability of this passage ought perhaps to be attributed to some blunder in the transcriber; since Henry, though often pedantic, is on other occasions perfectly intelligible.' On reading farther, however, we found another error equally palpable, which we could not throw on the transcriber, or resolve by any "*ductus literatum*;" and we will quote the passage, as our readers may be pleased to exercise their own ingenuity. Speaking of the Wickliffites, Miss B. observes: 'Of these old English patriots it appears to have been the first object to abolish papal supremacy, and the next to circumscribe the power of the clergy, for whose prerogative or emolument the usages of penance, purgatory, pilgrimage, and iconoclastic superstitions, were obviously perpetuated.'

* We must hint to Miss Benger that, if she adheres to her partiality for words derived from the learned languages, it will be advisable before she commits to the press any future work to submit it to the revision of some competent friend. Such a person would probably suggest to her that '*vaticidal*,' if admitted into our language, instead of *poetic* would mean *poet-killing*; and that '*iconoclastic*,' instead of *idolatrous*, or *image-worshipping*, means *image-breaking*.

ART. VI. *The Tour of the Dove*, a Poem; with occasional Pieces.
By John Edwards. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman
and Co. 1821.

DESCRIPTIVE poetry has of late years been unusually popular in England: but, in most cases, that popularity has arisen from the admixture of some degree of character and incident with the mere scenery; and it would be difficult to point out more than two or three works that have attained considerable reputation, and have rested on description alone. Mr. Edwards, therefore, must not expect (and indeed he seems far from anticipating) any very extended circle of readers for his present respectable little work, but must remain contented with the applause which the Derbyshire tourist, or native, may be willing to bestow on him; added to that of the *universal* readers of poetry, — a class which, in this age, *cannot* be numerous.

“*Tantæ molis opus cunctos legisse poetas.*”

We shall introduce our readers without farther preface to Mr. Edwards. He begins, as the lyric bard of old, in praise of WATER!

‘Thou eldest of the elements that sprang
From underneath the Spirit’s brooding wings,
When chaos heard that potent voice which rang,
Commanding life and being to all things, —
Hail, WATER! — beautiful thy gushing springs,
Thy lakes and rivers; — shrined in clouds or dew;
In ice or snow; or where the rainbow flings
Its radiant arch; in every form and hue,
Thou, glorious element, art ever fair and new!

‘Ever fresh springing in the wells and fountains,
The virgin-waters rise and overflow;
The cloud-nursed torrents hasting down the mountains,
Replenish still the fleeting streams below:
The Thames, the Rhine, the Tyber, and the Po,
Are ever by fresh rivulets supplied;
And mighty ocean, heaving to and fro,
Rock’d by the undulations of the tide,
Is with perpetual renovation purified.

‘Charm’d by the music of the rolling deep,
The Muse, that pours her own sweet song to heaven,
Might lingering stay beside the rocky steep
Till the day fled, and came the star of even:
But she a boon has to her votary given; —
With him to view the Dove-dale of the Peak;
And trace its river, in meanders driven
Through the deep-channell’d hills its way to seek; —
To tread the glens and caves, and climb the mountains bleak.

' Lo, now she beckons from the battlement
 Of yon mock pile, misnamed of Waterloo; —
 She saw the nuptials of the Dove and Trent,
 But long before that mushroom fabric grew;
 Each came with pomp of flowing retinue;
 Each, slow to meet, came on with winding wing;
 And this the language of their interview:
 "Comest thou alone, proud Dove, or dost thou bring
 Some tributary river from another spring?"

" Imperious Trent! thy better mood disowns,
 (Replied the fairer stream) this greeting harsh;
 But know that I am sprung from mountain-thrones,
 Beyond far Longnor's hills of pine and larch;
 Dovedale's rock-spires, and caves, and rock-built arch,
 Ashbourn's blue smoke, Uttoxeter's bright gleam,
 And Burton's joyous bells announce my march.
 These honors were sufficient dower, I deem,
 Came I alone — but wilder waters swell my stream."

Some of this passage (particularly the dialogue between the rivers Trent and Dove) is well-imagined and expressed: but in other places we observe a *truismatical manner*, (if we may venture on such a phrase,) which, to say the least, is more fitting for prose than verse.

" The Thames, the Rhine, the Tyber, and the Po,
 Are ever by fresh rivulets supplied."

Indeed?

We have too much of this easy familiarity in the 'Tour of the Dove,' and it certainly does *not* breed admiration. For example:

" *But mark the grand effect of human strength!*" P. 10.

Such lines as these never existed in the midst of tolerable English verse till the days of Cowper. It was he, with his acknowledged genius, who, from an undignified appreciation of the language of poetry, let loose on us

" Prose, and the vapid family of prose,
 More vapid than their sire."

This is often the strain of the present author:

' And I can find enjoyment in this task
 Of humbler measures.' P. 12.

' These banks are not the Jordan's, but the Dove's.' P. 17.

True again!

' Oakover's grove, that caught the evening breeze.' P. 28.

' Hamps, too, and Manifold, here seek repose.' Ibid.

Ilam

Ilam follows :

— ‘ where Congreve and Rousseau have been.’

Surely all this is very like the “ Guide to the Dove, done into Verse.” We rise, however, in the following :

‘ Then lift thy battle-axe, oh blue Thorp cloud !
And answer to my hail with clash of echoes loud !’

Very Ossianic.

It would be difficult to find a more offensive instance of *homoio-teleutic* rhymes than the subjoined :

‘ Whence came this spectacle of rugged cones ?
Was it that some vast inundation hove
Hither the kraken of the deep, whose bones,
Then stranded on the margin of the Dove,
Have petrified, and give the mountain-cove
Its horned aspect ? Or was this a camp
Of the huge Titans, warring against Jove ?
And these their weapons, thus, with echoing stamp,
Uprear’d from earth, the valour of HIGH HEAVEN TO DAMP ?’

How is it likely that inferior versifiers should understand the objection to the repetition of the *same sort of sound*, when even our best modern poets are so ignorant of this secret of harmony as constantly to offend against it ? Let us proceed up the Dove.

‘ O Chantrey, thy incomparable skill
Could I command, I might employ it now ;
Per on the apex of that conic hill
There stands — in listless apathy — a cow.’

Ohe ! — a cow ! — we are afraid to advance a step farther, lest we should meet we know not what relation of this meditative ruminating animal ; and lest we ourselves miss our footing on the ‘ apex ’ in question.

This ‘ Tour of the Dove ’ is dedicated to Jesse Watts Russell, Esq., M.P., who, the author informs us, is building a magnificent and appropriate dwelling, at Ilam* : a scene celebrated in picturesque description ; honored by the visit of a traveller so little accustomed to romantic wanderings as the illustrious Johnson ; and haunted by the youthful muse of Congreve, who might have said,

“ *Nostra nec erubuit sylvas habitare Thalia,*”

when he wrote his “ Old Bachelor,” in a seat yet shewn among these woods and rocks. Had the woods and rocks,

* In Dove-Dale ; near Ashbourn, Derbyshire.

however,

however, been endowed with their old classical consciousness, *they*, we think, would have blushed to have witnessed so old a bachelor and so young an author dwelling among them, in the person of the witty but licentious dramatist.

We seem, however, to have forgotten Mr. Edwards, and must trave his excuse; for he has sent us away in very good humour by his 'Annual Addresses' written for a poor old newsman, who travelled every winter from Derby to Sheffield for nearly thirty years. We have nine of these benevolent addresses; and they do credit to the author's ingenuity, as well as to his humanity.

ART. VII. *Annals of Parisian Typography*: containing an Account of the earliest Typographical Establishments of Paris; and Notices and Illustrations of the most remarkable Productions of the Parisian Gothic Press: compiled principally to shew its general Character; and its particular Influence upon the early English Press. By the Rev. W. Parr Greswell. 8vo. pp. 346. 14s. Boards. Cadell, &c.

WE have lately examined some costly volumes of bibliography, which were not highly creditable to the accuracy and erudition of the compiler, or to the taste and judgment of the public which patronized them. We have now the more agreeable task of announcing a book not vague and rambling, not capriciously recondite nor uselessly decorated, but having the specific object to illustrate the earlier typographical establishments of Paris; and accomplishing that object by patient, orderly, and penetrating research, — by comprehensive yet select information, — by elegant yet not superfluous illustration.

Paris, says Mr. Greswell, was the first city of France which received the noble art of printing. In the year 1470, the tenth of the reign of Louis XI., this business was begun there by Ulric Gering, a native of Constance; who, at the request of Guillaume Fichet and Jean de la Pierre, members of the college of Sorbonne, came to settle at Paris, bringing with him two assistants, named Crantz and Friburger; and an establishment was assigned to them in the college itself. Panzer could enumerate eighteen distinct books which they had printed between 1470 and 1472. These works are without date, and in the Roman character: the initial letter of each section is omitted, in order that it might be inserted by some illuminator; and they are also without titles, cyphers, catchwords, and signatures. — These last marks, or alphabetic letters placed for the binder's guidance at the bottom

of the page, were first introduced in 1476 by Antonius Zarotus, a printer at Milan; and the first table of errata occurs in a Venetian Juvenal of 1478.

In the year 1473, Peter Kaiser and John Stoll, both natives of Germany, who had been employed by Gering, established in the city of Paris the second press; and in the same year Gering quitted the Sorbonne, and removed into the street of Saint Jacques, adopting for his sign the Rising Sun. Among the works printed between 1473 and 1483, are several in which the type is obviously an imitation of manuscript. In 1477, some change took place in Gering's office, and the names of his assistants no longer appear in the books; one Remboldt, however, is known eventually to have joined him, and to have been his partner in 1500. In 1483 Gering went again to the neighbourhood of the Sorbonne; which college granted him a set of rooms. He was glad to consult with the professors about works likely to incur demand; and he was so much satisfied with the conduct of the fellows, that he bequeathed considerable endowments to this University. For the period of forty years, he continued to practise as a printer at Paris, his latest publication bearing the date 1508: but in 1509 Remboldt had exclusively undertaken the establishment, and began to print in his separate name. A whole-length portrait of Gering, cut on wood, is given by Mr. Greswell.

Other printers established themselves at Paris during the life of Gering, and introduced the Gothic character, which, especially for works of the ecclesiastics, was then generally preferred. Black-letters, as we call them, are of German extraction, and were used at Strasburg as early as 1471. So strong was the preference given by many persons to this sort of letter, that Gothic books are mentioned as recommended *politioribus characterum typis*; and Gering was so far obliged to comply with a prevailing fashion, as to execute many of his later publications in Gothic type. In general, however, the French printers patronized the Roman; the Italian printers, the Italic; and the German printers, the Gothic character. The practice of printing with an intermixture of red letters was begun at Milan in 1478: in missals, it answers the purpose of directing the eye to the successive alternations of the ritual; and it might perhaps still be applied to dialogues, so as even to render superfluous the repeated insertion of the names of the interlocutors.

The earliest French edition of the Scriptures is Gering's *Biblia Latina*, dated in 1476: but the most magnificent and voluminous of his impressions is the *Corpus Juris Canonici*, 1501; which was edited by Jean Chappuis, and was at first bought

bought up with eagerness, but is now undervalued by collectors. In Diderot's *Encyclopédie*, where a catalogue of celebrated printers is given under the article *Imprimeur*, no mention occurs of Gering, the founder of Parisian typography; an unbecoming and ungrateful omission, or an extraordinary instance of carelessness. Mr. Greswell now observes:

TYPOGRAPHY, having been thus introduced into the city of PARIS, was cultivated with so much zeal and emulation, that in the opinion of Maittaire no other city (Venice perhaps excepted) exhibited a more rapid and numerous increase of artists in that profession. The SORBONNE claimed the merit of introducing and fostering the art in its infancy. The University possessed by various royal "diplomata" an extensive JURISDICTION and control over every thing connected with the profession: for indeed, from times very remote, SCRIBES, BOOKSELLERS, BINDERS, and ILLUMINATORS had been subservient to its regulations. It claimed, and on many occasions rigidly exercised, the privilege of CENSURE: of pronouncing upon the salutary or dangerous tendency, whether religious or moral, of every work; of prohibiting and suppressing those which were considered to be of an heretical, or otherwise objectionable nature; and of punishing by fines and confiscations, those persons who were found in the act of vending prohibited books, or of carrying on the trade in a manner not conformable to its regulations. After the introduction of the art also, printers and booksellers, and even binders, acknowledged the authority of the University. They were not in general permitted to exercise their several professions without first obliging themselves, by a formal oath, to conform in all respects to the statutes provided: and this oath they were bound to renew as often as it was required. The University also exercised the right of VISITING; of inspecting books sent for sale from other countries; and of regulating the PRICE of every work that was exposed to sale.

This minute attention to the concerns of the profession was generally delegated to four, or sometimes to two, individuals, selected out of the corporation or body at large of "LIBRAIRES JURÉS." It was no less their office to attend to the characters, paper, and correctness of an impression, than to ordain the price at which it should be distributed. Even the limits were defined, beyond which no person was allowed to print or vend books: and these limits were restricted to the vicinity of the University, in order that any transgression of its regulations might more easily be detected. It appears, however, that a certain description of "Libraires non Jurés" were also tolerated, under particular restrictions. These consisted in general of poor SCRIBES, who, no longer able to procure a livelihood by the pen, were permitted to buy and sell books under a defined value; and to expose them in "Boutiques portatives" only, near the public schools and churches, and other places of general resort. Hence Chevallier takes occasion to notice the great antiquity of BOOK-STALLS: adding, that the

the University thus evinced itself at the same time both rigorous and charitable. Its rigour was shewn in the strict enforcement of its own salutary regulations : its charity, in leaving to poor booksellers the means of subsistence ; and to poor students, who were unable to purchase from the booksellers of the University their magnificent and richly ornamented works, a chance of supplying their own literary wants by a less specious article, and at a humbler market. In process of time it was found necessary to limit the number of " *Librairies Jurées*" to twenty-four ; and the restrictions before mentioned were in part greatly relaxed, and in part disused, if not formally abolished.

Our mention of the *SCRIBÆ* or *STATIONARII*, who found their practice almost annihilated by the invention of printing, leads me to observe with Maittaire, that the persons known anciently by the denomination of *ILLUMINATORS* still, for a long period at least, found employment for their ingenuity. The early printers did not consider their impressions as ready for sale, till the *INITIALS* and other ornaments had been supplied by their hands. But the eagerness of purchasers to possess copies, or a desire to save additional expense, soon occasioned an indifference to these adventitious ornaments. This speedily led to the introduction of the *LITERÆ CAPITALES* or *MAJUSCULÆ*, and those known more particularly by the denomination of " *LITERÆ FLORENTES*." M. Mentel says that capitals were first used by the printers of Strasburg, about thirty years subsequently to the invention of the art. The " *Literæ Florentes*," so called " *a Florum figuris quibus erant intermixtæ*," were invented by ERHARDUS RATDOLT, at Venice, about the year 1477. Plain capitals were used about the same period.

We cannot attend the author through all the curious details which he has collected concerning the early printers of Paris : but suffice it to say that he displays minute knowledge of the subject, and throws incidental light on the history of printing in England. It is surprizing to observe the small number of books printed which have preserved any permanent influence on society. A Virgil or a Sallust may occur : but even the *Pelerinage de l'Ame*, the *Destruction de Troyes*, and other works of transient popularity, are rare.

The following brief notice of the Holkham library forms an agreeable excursion in the description of a Parisian missal there preserved.

The Holkham library abounds not only in books which combine the perfection of early typography with the superb embellishments usually bestowed upon the most highly valued " *Codices manuscripti*," but also in ancient manuscripts : many of which will probably be found very valuable and highly interesting to literature. Amongst such literary curiosities I observed manuscripts of Livy : of Tacitus : of various parts of the works of Cicero : of Ovid : a fine Codex of the IV Evangelia, Græcè :

the "Oracula Sibyllina," Græcè : many of the opuscula of the Greek fathers : besides numerous manuscripts of works of the most esteemed early authors of Italy, &c. These are in general beautifully illuminated and well preserved, and constitute a comparatively small part only of the Holkham collection : which is said to possess almost six hundred "Codices manuscripti" of these singular and interesting descriptions.

In the annals of the year 1484 occurs the name of Louis Martineau, probably the first native French printer; who, as if the ultimate connection of his descendants with this country (where they are now domesticated) was already anticipated, published *Joannis Baconis, Anglici, Liber Sententiarum*. The year 1486 furnishes *La grant Danse Macabre*, so well known from Hollar's cuts. The dance itself was already a spectacle at Paris during the coronation of our Henry VI. In 1488, *Lancelot du Lac* was printed, *avec la quête du saint Graial, et la dernière partie de Table ronde*. Sir Thomas Malory had previously provided an English translation of this work. In 1489 we have *Opus Roberti Holkot super sapientiam Salomonis*. Robert Holkot was an Englishman, born at Northampton, who became a Dominican and professor of divinity at Oxford, and died of the plague in 1349. He left various commentaries on the Scriptures.

French translations of Lucan, Suetonius, and Sallust, occur in 1490; and in 1493 appeared *Metamorphose d'Ovide moralisée par T. Waleys*. This Thomas Waleys is said to have been a native of Wales, a divine of the University of Oxford, and of the society of preaching Friars. He preached at Avignon in 1392 before Pope John XXII., and accused the holy father of heresy, for which he was imprisoned some months. — This year also produced *Les Grands Chroniques de France*, a bibliographic curiosity, which sells for 150*l.*, the copy on vellum.

The first publications of Henry Estienne the elder appeared in 1496. He was father of Robert, and grandfather of Henry, whose press constituted for three generations the glory of Paris, and continues to merit the gratitude of Europe. The *Stephens*, or *Stephenses*, as their names have somewhat improperly been vernacularized among us, are considered as the kings of printing for the importance of their publications, and the erudition of their editions. Eight of the family have appeared in this illustrious career : but Robert and his son Henry II. are especially immortalized by their taste and learning. Robert had great classical acquirements, and applied an honorable attention to the correct publication of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew Bibles, into which he first introduced

introduced the separation of verses. Francis I. conferred on Robert Estienne the management of the royal printing-office: but, as Robert had imbibed the Protestant heresy, he was ultimately obliged to quit Paris, and retire to Geneva. Claude Garamond and Guillaume le Bled were his letter-founders. Mill observes that the Greek Testament published by Estienne in 1549 includes but one typographical error, which is in the Latin preface; and he attained this precision by hanging out the sheets separately at the gates of the colleges, and offering a penny to any scholar who would point out an error. He died at Geneva in 1559, at the age of 56. His *Thesaurus* has especially contributed to his glory. He was accused, however, of taking with him from Paris some types belonging to the King, and was burnt in effigy for so doing by those who succeeded to his establishment: but it is most likely that the types which he removed had been acquired out of his private property. He was a disinterested and hospitable man; and his house was always so full of authors of various countries, who conversed together in Latin, that not only his children but his servants all spoke that language with facility.

La Nef des Folz, which occurs in 1497, is a translation of Sebastian Brandt's *Ship of Fools*; and, like the *Dance of Macabre*, and *Reynard the Fox*, this is one of those German books which early made the tour of Europe.

Horæ ad usum Sarum appeared in 1498; and it is somewhat remarkable that a manual of devotion was printed at Paris for the use of an English cathedral. We extract from it an old English poem not deficient in ingenuity:

- ‘ THE FYRST vi yeres of mannes byrth and age,
May wel be compared to Janyere,
For in this month is no strength ne courage
More than in a childe of the age of vi yere.
- ‘ The other vi yeres is lyke Februarii,
In the ende therof begynneth the springe,
That tyme chyldren is moost apt & redy
To receye chastysement nurture and lernynge.
- ‘ Marche betokeneth the vi yeres folowyng
Arayeng erthe wt (with) pleasaunt verdure
That season youth careth for nothyng
And without thought dooth his sporte & pleasure.
- ‘ The next vi yere maketh four & twenty,
And figured is to joly Aprill
That tyme of pleasures man hath moost plenty
Fresche and louyng his lustes to fulfyll.

- As in the month of Maye all thing is in might
So at xxx yere man is in chief lyking,
Pleasant & lusty, to euery mannes sight,
In beaulte & strength, to women pleasyng.
- In June all thyng falleth to rypenesse
And so doth man at xxxvi yere olde.
And studieth for to acquiere richesse
And taketh a wyfe to kepe his housholde.
- At xl yere of aege or elles neuer
Is ony man endewed with wisdomes.
For than sorthon his myght fayleth ever
As in July dooth euery blossome.
- The goodes of the erthe is gadred evermore
In August so at xlvij yere
Man ought to gather some goodes in store
To sosteyne aege that than draweth nere.
- Lete no man thinke for to gather plenty
If at liiii. yere he have none.
No more than if his barne were empty
In Septembre whan all the corne is gone.
- By Octobre betokeneth lx yere
That aege hastily dooth man assayle.
If he haue ought than it dooth appere
To lyue quietly after his trauayle.
- Whan man is at lxvi yere olde,
Wiche likened is to barayne Nouembre
He wexeth unweldy : sekely : and colde,
Than his soules helth is tyme to remembre.
- The yere by Decembre taketh his ende,
And so dooth man at thre score and twelue.
Nature with aege will hym on message sende,
The tyme is come that he must go hym selve.

1498, also, *Recueil des Histoires Troyennes*, the original of Caxton's first impression; and the following year produced the *Gesta Romanorum*, a story-book of early and wide-spread popularity: as also a French translation of the same date. In 1500, *Les Faits et Gestes de preux Godefroy de Bouillon*, which is probably the book whence Tasso derived the fable of his Jerusalem Delivered. Also, *Les Quatre fils Aymon*. — In 1502, *Artus de Bretagne*, to which Spenser is indebted for outlines filled up in the *Fairy Queen*; and in the next year we have Froissart's *Chronique de France*, which has been translated into English by Lord Berners, and by Mr. Johnes.

Les Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles were printed in 1505, of which a copy was remarked in Mr. Roscoe's sale: they have supplied Lafontaine with several themes. Also *La Chronique de Turpin*.

pin. *Blanchardyne* is of uncertain date, and Mr. Greswell laments that he has been unable to find the French original of this romance; yet it was translated into English, and reprinted by Caxton with this title: *The Hystorie of Kyngge Blanchardyne and Queen Eglantyne his Wife*.

Gyron le Courtois is also of uncertain date, according to Mr. G.: but, according to Mr. Dunlop, it was printed in 1494. — *L'Histoire du Chevalier Tristan* is said to have first appeared at Rouen in 1489. — *Ogier le Danois* again is of uncertain date. It introduces at p. 298. a curious, interesting, and learned note concerning the romances of chivalry, which we should gladly transcribe if it were not too long for our pages. — *Le Livre de Benfuys de Hanton* is assigned to the year 1502; and it is questioned whether this or our *Bevis of Southampton* be the earlier story-book. — *Le Roman de Melusine* has left deeper traces in German than in English literature.

We cannot, however, afford to proceed thus, *seriatim*; and our bibliographical readers will already perceive that this book contains precise, original, and condensed information concerning an interesting period of the annals of printing in an important metropolis of literary instruction. Perhaps some omissions remain to be supplied, less use having been made of catalogues than of known bibliographical historians. For this purpose, it would have been well to consult a rare catalogue printed in quarto at Frankfort in 1592, intitled, "*Collectio in unum corpus omnium librorum Hebræorum, Græcorum, Latinorum, necnon Germanicè, Italicè, Gallicè, et Hispanicè scriptorum, qui in nundinis Francofurtensibus, ab anno 1564 usque ad nundinas autumnales 1592, venales extiterunt, desumpta ex omnibus catalogis Willerianis singularum nundinarum, et in tres tomos distincta.*" Perhaps, also, it would have been wiser to confine the illustrations to those articles which retain some importance in literary history: since the mere titles of publications which have left no traces in the progress of human culture, and are in no respect operative on the present condition of European mind, can scarcely merit the record, much less the commentary, of the philosophical historian of printing.

ART. VIII. *Tabella Cibaria*: The Bill of Fare: a Latin Poem, implicitly translated and fully explained in copious and interesting Notes, relating to the Pleasures of Gastronomy, and the mysterious Art of Cookery. 4to. pp. 104. 10s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1820.

ART. IX. *The Italian Confectioner*; or complete Economy of Deserts: containing the Elements of the Art, according to the most modern and approved Practice. Full and explicit Directions respecting Distillation, Decoration, and Modelling, in all their Branches: including Figures, Fruits, Flowers, and Animals, in Gum-Paste; and the Art of Moulding, Casting, and Gilding Composition Pastes of new and superior Quality. By G. A. Jarrin, Ornamental Confectioner at Messrs. Gunter's, in Berkeley Square. 8vo. pp. 280. With Plates. 15s. Boards. Harding. 1820.

ART. X. *The Cook's Oracle*: containing Receipts for plain Cookery on the most economical Plan for private Families: also, the Art of composing the most simple, and most highly finished Broths, Gravies, Soups, Sauces, Store Sauces, and flavouring Essences. The Quantity of each Article is accurately stated by Weight and Measure; the whole being the Result of actual Experiments instituted in the Kitchen of a Physician. The Third Edition, which is almost entirely re-written. 12mo. pp. 480. 9s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1821.

IN these interesting and edifying publications, we are presented with a *course* of reading, and many *courses* of eating, which cannot fail to be welcomed by all the modern disciples of Epicurus; a sect that has so largely improved on the meagre precepts of its founder, and, unlike that antient sage, has placed the *summum bonum* in the stomach. He, poor visionary! was a *mental epicure*: but his worthier sons have grasped at the substance instead of the shadow; and the only regard which they pay to the *mind* is to *mind* what they swallow, and to swallow what they have a *mind* to eat. We must not, however, cast one smile of levity on such grave and serious works as those before us; and therefore, with newly-mended pens, clear ink, brightly-brushed spectacles, and a cheerful fire, we sit down to a delicious imaginary repast! We open the *Tabella Cibaria*, *The Italian Confectioner*, and *The Cook's Oracle*!

The first of these works displays (perhaps *displays* is the very word best suited to the occasion) a considerable acquaintance with the Latin classics in the notes, and in the text a tolerable command of Latin verse, on a most unpromising subject: — but these verses are calculated only to exhibit the power of the author in a very moderate sphere of exertion.

exertion. He has done into hexameters and pentameters a long list of French and English dishes, and has made ample use of his Dictionary and Gradus in the operation: but neither the former nor the latter has been consulted with uniform success. For example: are the following names happy?

<i>Ovum in cochleari.</i>	Poached eggs.
<i>Exudat in ollâ.*</i>	Stewed pigeons.
<i>Devota craticulæ.</i>	Broiled pigeons.
<i>Elops.</i>	Sturgeon.

Is not this last pedantically used instead of *Acipenser*? There are other instances of the sort, that would not be worth mentioning; except in a case in which much pretension to a curious felicity of diction is observable, and in which (particularly in the notes) a disposition is manifested to sneer at the failures of commentators. Still, we readily allow the praise of ingenuity and scholarship to the author, who has been able to press so many uncouth names into his list of latinized eatables; and the material fault of this *jeu d'esprit* is that the said list is a mere list; without story, or occasional incident, or flash of wit, or any ingredient whatever, to enliven the single fact that the author has versified the names of 218 dishes, the majority of which were unknown to the Romans, in an imitation of Roman elegiacs!

Some of the verses are decidedly dull; such as the following about a duck and onions:

'Cepula quem sepiſ sæpe ſuperbit Anas.'

The author pleads, in the notes, that this 'alliteration was purposely affected,' and quotes a worthless Latin riddle (as he calls it) as the origin of his own heavy nonsense. We could say much more on similar passages: but, after having noticed two errors in the versification, we shall leave the text, and proceed to the commentary.

'Qui impavidos clanxit Gallos Tarpeius ales.'

Passing over the awkward elision in the first syllable, and the unmeaning phrase '*clanxit Gallos*,' *Tarpēūs* is used as a quadrisyllable, contrary to the authority of Virgil in several places; among them,

"Custos Tarpēiæ Manlius arcis."

The following betrays a still more barbarous licence, *i.e.* a decided error in quantity: '*Virgineoque hālitu,*' &c.; and,

* *Scilicet, Columba.*

Medeâm Æsônem sic renovâsse ferunt.

See Ovid, *passim*.

We come now to the notes; which, in truth, are in many instances as flippant as they are profound. Yet they have a *profundity* about them that has rather a tendency to produce *profound sleep* than any other result. The author most unconsciously observes, at page 17., that his 'bill of fare' might 'have been swelled to a considerable bulk, had he not had the prudence to stop in time, and just before his reader would have *felt disposed to oscitate* !' Alas ! this was "past praying for" at a very early period of his poem.

Let us, however, select one of the least prosing and most curious passages from this ample commentary; which extends to the length of nearly 100 pages, all about eating !

Cooks at Athens and Rome, and other places of Greece and Italy, were commonly hired for the occasion, as they did not generally constitute an essential part in a domestic establishment. They stood in the streets, or in the *coquium forum*; their arms negligently folded on their half-naked breasts; their aprons on; if they could afford to buy, or, happened to steal, any; a few culinary attributes dangling at their sides; and, with chubby faces and red noses, (as their calling and professional operations give us reason to suppose,) impatiently and peevishly waiting till they were called in to perform. An enumeration of that crowd of hirelings will be found in the following lines :

Ad macellum ubi advenimus

Concurrunt mî obviam cupedinarii omnes,

Cetarii; lanii, coqui; fartores, piscatores, aucupes.

PLAUTUS.

"As soon as we come to the market-place, I am surrounded by confectioners, fishmongers, butchers, cooks, sausage-makers, fishermen, birdcatchers."

The circumstance of cooks being not in general, as mentioned above, a constituent part of a family, was the natural cause of their not being trusted with any utensils of value in the kitchen; for they commonly proved unfaithful to the confidence reposed in them. They were so apt to run away with kettles, forks, spoons, &c. that their thievish propensity nearly became proverbial. Plautus, in his most interesting comedy entitled *Pseudolus*, gives us a curious, and undoubtedly accurate, idea of what such a cook was in his time.

Ballio, a man of an infamous character, holds a parley with a cook whom he wishes to hire; and the fellow is one of the most boastingly jocose *chaps* in his trade. He asserts that his ragouts and fricassees possess such a flavour, and emit so delightful a scent, that, whenever he is employed, Jove himself makes a daily repast on the delicate perfume issuing from his curious dishes :

Eum

Eum in odorem cœnat Jupiter cotidie.

‘ But, says Ballio,

Si numquam is coctum, quidnam cœnat Jupiter ?

“ If you remain unemployed, what has Jupiter to feed upon ?”

It incœnatus cubitum.

“ Well, then, he goes to bed without his supper.”

‘ This unblushing rascal does not hesitate to ask, “ Do you expect to find a cook without the rapacious talons of a kite or an eagle ?”

*‘ An invenire postulas quemquam coquum,
Nisi milvinis aut aquilinis unguibus ?*

‘ From this it clearly appears that the word *coquus*, in its diminutive *coquinus*, was adopted by the French, who call *coquin* a thief, a dishonest fellow, a man not to be trusted.

‘ By a passage in Cicero, Fam. ix. 20., we are led to understand that, among other miseries of life which constantly attended this consular personage and eloquent orator, he laboured under the disappointment of not having an excellent cook of his own ; for he says : *Coquus meus, præter jus fervens, nihil potest imitari ;* “ Except hot broth, my cook can do nothing cleverly.” Of all servants, however, cooks, though most useful, are often most abused : they are expected to guess what their masters like ; and Martial says, with great propriety and truth,

*‘ Non satis est ars sola coquo ; servire palato,
Atque coquus domini debet habere gulam.*

“ The art of the cook avails him not to please his master, if he does not possess his master’s taste.”

‘ A French author observes that, from the blaze and bustle of the kitchen, cooks half stewed and half roasted, when unable to work any longer, generally retire to some unknown corners, and die in forlornness and want. But he adds most emphatically, Corneille, the famous dramatic writer, had not a better fate, since he died in obscurity and distress ; and this similarity ought to contribute to their consolation ! — *Manuel des Amphitryons.*

This sort of *collective* note will have its amusement for classical readers, and is a creditable proof of the author’s industry and devoted passion for gastronomical studies ; but the kind of dullness which most abounds in the book may be illustrated by the following little instance. Such and such messes are said to ‘ do wonders, when in *partnership* with water-gruel.’ As our ancestors would have said, “ patience and water-gruel,” &c. &c. — Have our readers ever observed this heavy peculiarity of their contemporaries ; this laboured expression of nothing, which is intended to excite a laugh because it is nothing ? Such jokes were excellent, no doubt, when they were first cut : but, like “ The Miseries of Human

Life," they pall on the sense: they are "*crambe repetita*," or eternal cabbage.

By the way, this allusion to the well-known proverb (*δις κραμβὴ θανάτος*) leads us to remark, that the author is laboriously dull for several pages on the subject of 'cabbage,' and most unnecessarily doubts the received interpretation of the "*crambe repetita*" of the Roman satirist. The notion of there being such a noun as *crambe*, *crambes*, &c., which was constantly repeated in the elements of Roman instruction, has no reference whatever to the general picture which the satirist draws of the wretchedness of a school-master. Where, also, was the author's acuteness, or his learning, when he so utterly forgot Virgil (to mention him alone) among the antients, and Butler among the moderns? When he is at a loss to discover the prophetic character of 'cabbage,' has he no knowledge of the far-famed pneumatology of that vegetable? Has he no remembrance of

"*Afflata propiore Dei?*

Tum rabie fera corda tument?" &c.

Did he never hear that

—"wind in hypochonder pent"? &c.

We leave him to his disconsolate reflections at having missed such an obvious solution of his problem.

Reluctantly, we must omit Fontenelle and his asparagus, and some other good stories; and we are aware that we are leaving a large arena of gastronomical and culinary information unapproached, when we select only one more extract from the '*Tabella Cibaria*,' in which a very nice distinction is drawn (*ut ab homine perito definiendi*) between several classes of epicureans:

'There exists a material difference between a *gourmand* and a *glutton*. The first seeks for peculiar delicacy and distinct flavour in the various dishes presented to the judgment and enjoyment of his discerning palate; while the other lays aside nearly all that relates to the rational pleasure of creating or stimulating an appetite by the excellent quality of the cates, and looks merely to quantity. This has his stomach in view, and tries how heavily it may be laden without endangering his health. The *gourmand* never loses sight of the exquisite organs of taste, so admirably disposed by Providence in the crimson-chamber where sits the discriminating judge, the human tongue. The *glutton* is anathematized in the Scripture with those brutes, *quorum deus venter est*. The other appears guilty of no other sin than of too great and too minute an attention to refinement in commensal sensuality.

We find besides a curious shade between the French appellations *gourmand* and *gourmet*. In the idiom of that nation, so famous

famous for indulging in the worship of Comus, the word *gourmand* means, as we stated above, a man who, by having accidentally been able to study the different tastes of eatables, does accordingly select the best food, and the most pleasing to his palate. His character is that of a practitioner, and answers to the appellation of an *epicure* in the full sense of the word, as we use it in English. The *gourmet*, on the other hand, considers the theoretical part of gastronomy; he speculates more than he practises; and eminently prides himself in discerning the nicest degrees and most evanescent shades of goodness and perfection in the different subjects proposed to him. In fact, the word *gourmet* has long been used to designate a man who, by sipping a few drops out of the silver cup of the rintner, can instantly tell from what country the wine comes, and its age. This denomination has lately acquired a greater latitude of signification, and not improperly, since it expresses what the two other words could not mean.

From the foregoing observations we must conclude that the *glutton* practises without any regard to theory; and we call him *Gastrophile*. The *gourmand* unites theory with practice; and may be denominated *Gastronomer*. The *gourmet* is merely theoretical, cares little about practising, and deserves the higher appellation of *Gastrologer*.

We make no excuse to our readers for this extract; because (although we vouch not for the liveliness of its manner) we are convinced that the *subject-matter* becomes every day more interesting to so refined a people as the English! In truth there is a senility, a *doodledom*, (as this author happily expresses it,) in states as well as in individuals; and, as the aged palate of the individual craves every day fresh irritations of pungent viands, so the *taste* of every highly polished community becomes, in the dotage of its existence, hourly more attached to the pleasures of the table. There must have been no scanty portion of gastronomers in a nation over which Heliogabalus was fit to reign; and the court of the French Regent must have abounded in scientific slaves of the kitchen. Let us consult the records of Jacquier's, or Long's, for our own youthful practitioners of the palate; and let us not doubt that the London Tavern, at a civic, orthodox, or patriotic meeting, could produce heroes of deglutition equal to vie with the courtiers of the antient Roman, or the modern Gallic *gastrophile*.

'The Italian Confectioner' is the work of one of the principal foreign assistants of the celebrated Mr. Gunter, the king of ornamental deserts, the emperor of Gothic castles in pie-crust, the arch-druid of mystic trifles and enigmatical marmalades. All these arcana, the luscious and delicate Signor Guglielmo Jarrin reveals to the uninitiated, in the

book before us. It is the perfect eleusis of flowers, fashioned in gum-paste, raspberry-ratafias, and candy-comfits. We walk through palaces of apple-jelly, by water-ices, to temples of mille-fruit; — are actually enshrined in clarified sugar, — and remain monuments of elegant gastrology modelled in wax!

‘*The Cook’s Oracle*’ we consider as the *ne plus ultra* of the science of eating, and the very acmè of excellence in culinary literature. So much good sense, combined with such exquisite *gourmanderie*; — so much plain *pot-information* conveyed in so truly humorous and original a style; — such a Shandean manner of teaching us to tickle our palates, and fill our stomachs, healthily and economically; — these extraordinary and obsolete qualities place our airy and scientific *Apicius Anglicus* on the very eminence of the ample dome of cookery; or, if there be two pinnacles on its summit, while the Roman occupies the one, the Londoner proudly claims the other, and, “spit in hand,” overlooks the fuming stew-pans of his native town. ‘To tasteful palates, keen appetites, and capacious stomachs, the following receipts, composed for their rational recreation, are respectfully inscribed.’ Such was the appropriate dedication of the *second edition* of ‘*The Cook’s Oracle*.’* While other authors inscribe poetry to unthetical ears and insensible hearts, or astronomy to those whose eyes are wholly fixed on earth, Dr. Kitchener †, the Apollo as well as Apicius of the kitchen, (*nominis sibi cognati*,) addresses his works to those everlasting entities, the palate, the appetite, and the stomach; which, unaffected by the revolutions of empires, and superior to the accidents of time and place, hold their unaltered course, and enjoy their proper pleasures, amid the wreck of worlds and the ruin of all creations, but those of — the kitchen.

It is impossible to refrain from quoting the inimitable exordium of this work:

‘The following Receipts are not a mere marrowless collection of shreds, and patches, and cuttings, and pastings; — but a *bonâ fide* register of Practical Facts, — accumulated by a perseverance not to be subdued, or evaporated, by the igniferous terrors of a Roasting Fire in the Dog-days, — in defiance of the odoriferous and califacient repellents, of Roasting, — Boiling, — Frying, — and Broiling: — moreover, the author has submitted to a labour no preceding Cookery-Bookmaker, perhaps, ever attempted to encounter — having *eaten* each Receipt, before he set it down in his book.

* Our readers will observe that the third edition is now before us, in which we do not find these dedicatory words.

† It is well known that for ‘*The Cook’s Oracle*’ we are indebted to this learned gastrographer.

‘They

They have all been heartily welcomed by a sufficiently well educated Palate, and a rather fastidious Stomach; — perhaps this certificate of the reception of the respective preparations will partly apologize for the book containing a smaller number of them, than preceding writers, on this gratifying subject, have transcribed, — for the amusement of “every man’s master,” the Stomach.*

We cannot but add another extract or two for the combined benefit and pleasure of our readers:

‘The cardinal virtues of Cookery, “cleanliness, frugality, nourishment, and palatableness,” preside over each preparation; for I have not presumed to insert a single composition, without previously obtaining the “*imprimatur*” of an enlightened and indefatigable “Committee of Taste,” (composed of thorough-bred *grands gourmands* of the first magnitude,) whose cordial co-operation I cannot too highly praise; and here do I most gratefully record the unremitting zeal they manifested during their arduous progress of proving the respective Recipes, — they were so truly, philosophically, and disinterestedly regardless of the wear and tear of teeth and stomach, that their labour appeared a pleasure to them. — Their laudable perseverance, — which has enabled me to give the inexperienced amateur an unerring and economical guide, how to excite as much pleasure as possible on the Palate, and occasion as little trouble as possible to the principal viscera, has hardly been exceeded by those determined spirits who lately in the polar expedition braved the other extreme of temperature, &c. in spite of whales, bears, icebergs, and starvation.

‘Every attention has been paid in directing the proportions of the following compositions, not merely to make them inviting to the Appetite, but agreeable and useful to the Stomach; — nourishing without being inflammatory, and savoury without being surfeiting.’

Will any “palatician,” or indeed any sensible *self-physician*, hesitate to purchase such an ‘Oracle’ as this, when he may be most confidently assured that all the promises of the author are more than fulfilled; and that, throughout his tasteful and wholesome pages, *HYGEIA* is married to *ARCHÆUS*, and that they here reign supreme over the *PALATINATE* of *CULINA*?

“*“The stomach is the grand organ of the human system, upon the state of which, all the powers and feelings of the individual depend.” — See Hunter’s *Culina*, p. 13.

““The faculty the stomach has of communicating the impressions made by the various substances that are put into it, is such, that it seems more like a nervous expansion from the brain, than a mere receptacle for food.” — Dr. Waterhouse’s *Lecture on Health*, p. 4.

Can we conscientiously omit the receipt for restoring the impaired sensibility of the cook's palate to its pristine force and delicacy; and may not his master also (*mutatis mutandis*) profit by a like prescription?

“ If you find your Cook neglect his business, — that his *Ragouts* are too highly spiced or salted, and his cookery has too much of the ‘*haut goût*,’ — you may be sure that his Index of Taste wants regulating, — his Palate has lost its sensibility, — and it is high time to call in the assistance of the apothecary, — who will prepare him by two days' aqueous diet, and then administer a *Potio Purgans* — regulating the dose according to the greater or less insensibility of his Palate: — give him a day's rest. — “*Purger encore*” — let him have two days' rest after his second dose, and you may then hope to have at the head of your stoves a man altogether renovated.

“ This Receipt to ensure good cheer is no joke. — “*Purger souvent*” is the grand maxim in all kitchens where *le Maître d'Hôtel* has any regard for the reputation of his table. *Les Bonnes Hommes de Bouche* submit to the operation without a murmur; — to bind others, it should be made the first condition in hiring them. Those who refuse prove they were not born to become masters of their art; — and their indifference to fame will rank them, as they deserve, among those stupid slaves, who pass their lives in as much obscurity as their own stew-pans.”

Bon gré, mal gré, we must restrain ourselves in this pleasing task of gastronomical quotation; and one or two short allusions more are, alas! all that we can possibly afford on this attractive subject, even for this exquisite author: — but to which of his receipts shall we give a direction? Solid or liquid? Shall it be ‘Lemonade in a minute,’ ‘Punch directly,’ or ‘Water-gruel immediately?’ Certainly not the last, after having thus raised our epicurean reader's expectations. No! we will send him to bed with a supper, which we think will be sufficient for the most finished *gourmand* and *gourmet* in existence: viz.

Rotten cheese toasted!!! (Vide p. 419.)

And *Tewahdiddle*, or beer, brandy, and brown sugar!!!
(Vide p. 374.)

We cannot leave Dr. Kitchener, however, without observing that he has so tickled our palates by anticipation, in contemplating his numerous *good things*, that it is incumbent on him to satisfy our longings by the actual enjoyment of some of them. Indeed, after our handsome treatment of him, we expect him to invite our whole corps to dinner, that we may do in part what he says he has done *in toto*, and verify the excellence of at least some of his receipts: but it must be “none of your economical plans for private families:” (see
Title:)

Title :) we shall require a thorough Christmas feast ; and if any of us suffer from it, the Doctor must provide us *gratis* with recipes of a different kind, or we shall denounce and renounce all his culinary preparations, and anathematize his Punic faith.

ART. XI. *The Characters of the Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species ; or, the Characteristic of the Natural History System of Mineralogy.* Intended to enable Students to discriminate Minerals on Principles similar to those of Botany and Zoology. By Frederick Mohs, Professor of Mineralogy, Freiberg. 8vo. pp. 109. 6s. 6d. Edinburgh, Tait ; London, Longman and Co. 1821.

To stumble at the threshold is, by the superstitious, usually deemed unlucky. We have no wish to be ranked among such ominous persons : but we confess that we have a propensity to ascribe stumbling to absence, awkwardness, or some unsteadiness of the head ; and a slip, therefore, at the threshold of a scientific work we hold to be a bad augury. In the volume before us, the title-page is rather an unfortunate specimen not only of the author's English but of his logic ; though it surely requires a more expert logician to arrange a complicated system than to compose an accurate title-page. We are presented with 'the Characters of the Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species,' but it does not appear of *what* ; unless it be of the science of mineralogy, which is the only given term to which we can refer them, though this is the first time that we have heard of any science being so arranged ; and therefore, though imperfect acquaintance with the English language might excuse some mistakes, this is not an idiomatical but a logical error. — Again, what are we to understand by 'the Characteristic of the *Natural History System* of Mineralogy ?' Is not every system of mineralogy a natural-history system ? We have always so understood it, and should be glad to learn by what right M. Mohs appropriates the terms exclusively to *his* system. He tells us, indeed, that he has kept more rigidly than former mineralogists to the principles followed in botany and zoology : but to this declaration we hesitate on the best grounds to assent ; for we shall soon find that his 'Characteristic,' as he calls it, will *not* 'enable Students to discriminate Minerals,' though he professes to proceed 'on Principles similar to those of Botany and Zoology.'

The system, however, has one grand excellence : it is very short ; though, by the art of book-making, in this instance somewhat clumsily displayed, it is racked, drawn, and quartered,

tered, through the requisite number of pages to constitute a volume, and to give some colour for, exacting six shillings and sixpence for what, if we estimate by letter-press, may be worth about one shilling. Yet another inconvenience is thus produced besides the enhancement of the price : — this mode of procedure disunites the subject, by scattering the divisions like so many title-pages through nearly two octavo sheets, when with great ease and greater convenience they might have been comprized in a single column. It is exactly as if, in giving an account of the seven prismatic colours, *violet* should be printed on one page, *indigo* on a second, and so on throughout the seven.

To come to the system itself ; it is the production of no less a person than the successor of Werner, the father of the science which it professes to arrange : though, strange to say, we observe no allusion to his name or his labours in the introduction of M. Mohs, while he speaks of the Abbé Haüy with respect and praise, though he evidently is not pleased with Professor Jameson for adopting *only a part* of his system. How are we to account for this omission of the name of Werner ? Was it because he could not be mentioned without censuring the Wernerian system and arrangement ? Or was M. Mohs afraid of awakening an unfavourable train of comparisons between the great mineralogist and himself, while he fancied that he might safely cope with Haüy and Jameson ? The example of Werner might have taught him modesty, and, above all, caution in committing his juvenile system so prematurely to the press.

Mr. Jameson, in the Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, repays the praise bestowed on him by characterizing the system of M. Mohs as a “ classical work,” and designating its author as a “ profound naturalist.” What Mr. Jameson means by *classical* we pretend not to know, unless perchance he may intend thus to eulogize the *classification* ; for of elegance, and other qualities usually deemed classical, neither Mr. Jameson nor Mr. Mohs seems to have any great conception. It cannot have escaped the recollection of our mineralogical friends that it was this gentleman, who now undertakes to pronounce on the classical character of the work before us, that a few years ago introduced into the science such elegant and perspicuous phrases as “ looking geognostically,” “ not particularly difficultly frangible,” and the like. — As to the “ profundity” of the views of M. Mohs, it will be best estimated by examining his system, the following outline of which we have, with some care, drawn up from his work :

OUT-

OUTLINE OF MOHS' CLASSIFICATION OF MINERALS.

I. CLASS.

I. Order. — *Gas*.

1. Genus, Hydrogen-gas, 4 species.
2. Genus, Atmospheric gas, 1 species.

II. Order. — *Water*.

1. Atmospheric water, 1 species.

III. Order. — *Acid*.

1. Carbonic acid, 1 species.
2. Muriatic acid, 1 species.
3. Sulphuric acid, 2 species.
4. Boracic acid, 1 species.
5. Arsenic acid, 1 species.

IV. Order. — *Salt*.

1. Natron-salt, 1 species
2. Glauber-salt, 1 species.
3. Nitre-salt, 1 species.
4. Rock-salt, 1 species.
5. Ammoniac-salt, 1 species.
6. Vitriol-salt, 3 species.
7. Epsom-salt, 1 species.
8. Alum-salt, 1 species.
9. Borax-salt, 1 species.
10. Brithyne-salt, 1 species.

II. CLASS.

I. Order. — *Haloïde (salt-like)*.

1. Gypsum-haloïde, 2 species.
2. Cryone-haloïde, 1 species.
3. Alum-haloïde, 1 species.
4. Fluor-haloïde, 2 species.
5. Calc-haloïde, 4 species.

II. Order. — *Baryte*.

1. Parachrose-baryte, 2 species.
2. Zinc-baryte, 2 species.
3. Scheelium-baryte, 1 species.
4. Hal-baryte, 4 species.
5. Lead-baryte, 5 species.

III. Order. — *Kerate*.

1. Pearl-kerate, 2 species.

IV. Order. — *Malachite*.

1. Staphyline-malachite, 1 species.
2. Lirocone-malachite, 2 species.
3. Olive-malachite, 2 species.
4. Azure-malachite, 1 species.
5. Emerald-malachite, 1 species.
6. Habroneme-malachite, 2 species.

V. Order.

V. Order. — *Mica*.

1. Euchlore-mica, 3 species.
2. Antimony-mica, 1 species.
3. Cobalt-mica, 1 species.
4. Iron-mica, 1 species.
5. Graphite-mica, 1 species.
6. Talc-mica, 2 species.
7. Pearl-mica, 1 species.

VI. Order. — *Spar*.

1. Schiller-spar, 5 species.
2. Disthene-spar, 1 species.
3. Triphane-spar, 2 species.
4. Dystome-spar, 1 species.
5. Kouphone-spar, 10 species.
6. Petaline-spar, 1 species.
7. Feld-spar, 3 species.
8. Augite-spar, 4 species.
9. Azure-spar, 2 species.

VII. Order. — *Gem*.

1. Andalusite-gem, 1 species.
2. Corundum-gem, 4 species.
3. Diamond-gem, 1 species.
4. Topaz-gem, 1 species.
5. Emerald-gem, 2 species.
6. Quartz-gem, 4 species.
7. Axinite-gem, 1 species.
8. Chrysolite-gem, 1 species.
9. Boracite-gem, 1 species.
10. Tourmaline-gem, 1 species.
11. Garnet-gem, 5 species.
12. Zircon-gem, 1 species.
13. Gadolinite-gem, 1 species.

VIII. Order. — *Ore*.

1. Titanium-ore, 3 species.
2. Zinc-ore, 1 species.
3. Copper-ore, 1 species.
4. Tin-ore, 1 species.
5. Scheelium-ore, 1 species.
6. Tantalum-ore, 1 species.
7. Uranium-ore, 1 species.
8. Cerium-ore, 1 species.
9. Chrome-ore, 1 species.
10. Iron-ore, 3 species.
11. Manganese-ore, 2 species.

IX. Order. — *Metal*.

1. Arsenic-metal, 1 species.
2. Tellurium-metal, 1 species.
3. Antimony-metal, 2 species.
4. Bismuth-metal, 1 species.

5. Mercury-metal, 2 species.
6. Silver-metal, 1 species.
7. Gold-metal, 1 species.
8. Platina-metal, 1 species.
9. Iron-metal, 1 species.
10. Copper-metal, 1 species.

X. Order. — *Pyrites*.

1. Nickel-pyrites, 1 species.
2. Arsenic-pyrites, 2 species.
3. Cobalt-pyrites, 2 species.
4. Iron-pyrites, 3 species.
5. Copper-pyrites, 1 species.

XI. Order. — *Glance*.

1. Copper-glance, 3 species.
2. Silver-glance, 1 species.
3. Lead-glance, 1 species.
4. Tellurium-glance, 1 species.
5. Molybdena-glance, 1 species.
6. Bismuth-glance, 1 species.
7. Antimony-glance, 3 species.
8. Melane-glance, 2 species.

XII. Order. — *Blende*.

1. Glance-blende, 1 species.
2. Garnet-blende, 1 species.
3. Purple-blende, 1 species.
4. Ruby-blende, 2 species.

XIII. Order. — *Sulphur*.

1. Sulphur.

III. CLASS.

I. Order. — *Resin*.

1. Melichrone-resin, 1 species.
2. Mineral-resin, 2 species.

II. Order. — *Coal*.

1. Mineral-coal, 2 species.

Appendix,

Containing upwards of 40 genera, 'the natural-history determination of which has not been completed.'

Now, at the very outset, we would ask M. Mohs how he came to introduce gases, water, and acids, among minerals, in the way in which he has placed them? We are aware that these substances are occasionally found in mines, but not as he has described them; for 'pure atmospheric gas' and 'pure atmospheric water' are surely not among the things of the mineral kingdom; while the waters so well known by the epithet *mineral* are altogether omitted in his system. The

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order *Gas* again he defines to be 'not acid;' and, of course, he excludes carbonic acid gas, muriatic acid gas, and sulphuric acid gas, which he is thus forced to transfer to the order *Acid*; a disunion not very like a natural system professing to follow the most prominent characteristics of things. His first class, also, he defines, 'if solid: sapid:' we are, therefore, it appears, to consider hydrogen gas, hydrosulphuric acid, and hydrophosphoric acid, as being insipid, though nobody, who has ever perceived these exhalations from mines or mineral waters, can have failed to be annoyed with the disagreeable *goutt* which they produce. According to his own description, also, carbonic acid gas is 'acidulous pungent' to the taste, and muriatic acid gas is 'strongly acid' to the taste. These consequently should be excluded from the first class, 'if solid: sapid;' for they are sapid while they are not solid.

The second class, — which comprehends all mineral substances except the few that are in the first and third, whose genera amount only to twenty-one, — is defined to be 'insipid.' A less prominent and a more uncertain characteristic could scarcely have been adopted. It is not prominent, because few except the pupils of M. Mohs would think of carrying every specimen to their tongue to determine its class; and, besides, the solid substances of his third class are also characterized as insipid. What is worse, a considerable number of the minerals in the second class, so far from being insipid, as designated by M. Mohs, are most distinctly sapid. For example, all the earthy minerals are placed here; though the merest tyro in the science knows that the phrase "taste, earthy," occurs repeatedly in former systems of mineralogy. The metallic taste is also well known, particularly in the cases of copper, iron, silver, and lead; yet all the metals are here said to be 'insipid.' The author must surely attach to this word a different meaning from that which is commonly understood; if not, we must conclude that his system is constructed on an unsound foundation. That he has a propensity, however, to make very strange alterations in the meaning of words, we perceive from his definition of 'eminent,' which he says signifies 'pearly lustre' when applied to 'a plane of cleavage;' such as in 'prismatoidal and hemiprismatic kounphoné-spar,' (*stilbite of Haiiy*), in which the 'cleavage' is said to be 'eminent,' that is *pearly*. Such tampering with the received acceptation of words cannot be too severely reprobated; particularly in works of science, where accuracy and perspicuity are indispensable.

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As to the collocation of the minerals in this second class and its orders, we think that, in many cases, it is the very reverse of natural, and exhibits as much empiricism as any of the systems which M. Mohs so much decries. The metals and their combinations seem to have been the greatest stumbling block in his way: he being afraid lest any of his orders or genera should become so extensive as to require a new subdivision, — for the construction of which he possibly distrusted his logical acquirements; as he has some sort of shadowy conception 'that subdivisions of this kind do not belong to the essence of form.' Yet, how profoundly soever he may be skilled in this metaphysical nonentity, termed 'the essence of form,' he cannot be allowed to have improved 'in form' the arrangement of the metallic minerals. For example, under the order *Baryte*, we have lead-baryte, of which he enumerates five species, though all of them have by former writers been denominated ores. We have also two species of zinc-baryte, and two genera with newly coined barbarous names, under which disguise we had some difficulty in recognizing our old acquaintances, iron-spar, red manganese, and tungsten. Moreover, the greater portion of this order, *Baryte*, is metallic, while it derives its name from a mineral having no metallic character except a high specific gravity. If weight were to be taken as the prominent characteristic of the order, why have we not also gold-baryte, and platina-baryte? — The next two orders, *Kerate* and *Malachite*, are likewise distinctly metallic, though they are separated without any assigned or apparent cause from the native Metals, the Ores, and the Glances, by the intervention of the orders, *Mica*, *Spar*, and *Gem*; which, with one or two exceptions, such as iron-mica, are non-metallic. What are we to think of so violent a displacement of allied minerals? Is this the system which is said to be so natural, so elegant, and so profound?

If we examine the arrangement of the genera in any particular order, we shall find the same arbitrary procedure; at least we perceive no apparent reason for which one should stand first and another last in the series. Why, for example, should gold be seventh in the series of the order, *Metal*, and why should the diamond be third in the order *Gem*? Not on account of their specific gravity; nor from their colour, form, or hardness. On what principle, then, has the series been arranged? If they had been shuffled and divided like a pack of cards, or the tickets in the lottery-wheel, they could not have been more disarranged than as they now stand in the pages of M. Mohs.

In our modern systems of natural history, the art of name-making holds the chief place; the plain vernacular tongue being considered as unscientific and vulgar; or, in one word, *popular*. Even the learned terms formerly in use are by familiarity become vulgarized; and hence the necessity of new terms fresh from the mint, to gratify this singular mania for novelty. Our naturalists, accordingly, are not now employed in examining nature, and extending our views of the works of our great Creator, but in culling words from their lexicons to patch up into new combinations. M. Mohs deserves some praise for having been more sparing in such coinages than most of his contemporaries: but the instances, in which he has given specimens of his skill in this art, will afford our readers some curious specimens of his ability and his taste in the invention of names. Sparry iron, for example, he calls *Brachytypous Parachrose-Baryte*, from the four Greek words βραχυ-, *short*, τυπος, *form*, παραχρωσις, *change of colour*, and βαρυς, *heavy*; which might be Englished not less harmoniously, *short-formed-changing-colour-heavy-stone*. In the same order, we have, for what has been hitherto known under the name of *Malachite*, the new term or rather terms, *Diprismatic-Habroneme-Malachite*; in English, *doubly-prism-shaped-fine-thread-green-copper*; Habroneme being taken from ἄβρος, *fine*, and νῆμα, *a thread*. *Cross-stone* is termed by M. Mohs *Pyramido-prismatic-kouphone-spar*; kouphone being derived from ἑσπερος, *light*. Not to multiply examples, we shall only add another. *Rhombohedral-Calc-haloïde* is the term which M. Mohs gives indiscriminately to a number of minerals hitherto (as it appears) ignorantly supposed to be considerably different; namely, lime-slate-spar, agaric mineral, or rock-milk, chalk, lucullite, marl, and bituminous-marlslate. We suppose that the "profound" knowledge of M. Mohs has enabled him to see, by means of chemistry, (though he formally disclaims all assistance from this source,) that lime being the basis of all these minerals, they must therefore be the same, and ought to be named rhombohedral-calc-haloïde. Who but M. Mohs can see a rhombus in chalk?

The author has made several sweeping designations of the same kind in the course of his work, arising (as we imagine,) from the same profound views both of the nature of the minerals and the principles of nomenclature! *Rhombohedral Quartz*, for example, is his term not only for quartz, but for iron-flint, horn-stone, flinty slate, flint, chalcedony, heliotrope, jasper, chrysoprase, and float-stone. In the first place, M. Mohs has altered the English spelling of the term quartz by leaving out the *t*; and next he has crowded an extensive family

family or rather an order of minerals under one species. We hope, however, that the members of the Geological Society, with such men as Greenough and Macculloch at their head, will resist the cutting and carving of this German nomenclator of stones on the king's English: though Professor Jameson and the Wernerian Society are already, we fear, hopelessly germanized.

Such is the hardihood of M. Mohs, that he has also given oracular decisions on points of geology which our best informed philosophers deem to be still very doubtful and obscure. We state one very flagrant instance. '*Empyrodor Quarz*' is the name here assigned to obsidian, pitch-stone, pearl-stone, and pumice-stone; his term being derived 'from *ἐμπυρος*, belonging to *fire*, and *δόξα*, an *opinion*, because the varieties of this species are supposed by many to be formed by fire.' Supposed! Is there any supposition in the case of pumice-stone or obsidian? Werner, indeed, strove hard to prove that these as well as lava were or might be aqueous productions: — it was the good man's weak side: — but even his most devoted disciples have been argued out of the belief, after having exposed themselves to the ridicule of all Europe for having entertained it; and shall M. Mohs again broach the absurdity in this mincing way? He might as well have said that the sea is supposed by many to be salt. — Pitch and pearl-stone he farther identifies with obsidian and pumice, though the most able geologists have never gone beyond the conjecture, that similar causes *may* have effected their formation. If M. Mohs is guided by the similarity of fracture, lustre, and internal structure, he ought to include under his *Empyrodor Quarz* not only pitch-stone, but the scoriæ of furnaces and Reaumur's porcelain; and, by following similar principles, he will be compelled to admit into his classification, brick, tile, delf, and stone-ware, as well as glass and china.

The collocation of the orders, particularly in the second class, appears to us a mass of confusion, equalled only by the collocation of the genera which are placed in the several orders. It is well perhaps to have the order *Haloïde* first, on account of its affinity with the order *Salt*: but why is *Baryte* made the second and *Blende* the last order? Why is *Ore* placed before *Metal*, and *Pyrites* and *Glance* after it? except to exemplify in another instance the empiricism which placed the genera *Gypsum-haloïde* first and *Calc-haloïde* last in the first order, with *Cryone*, *Alum*, and *Fluor*, between them.

Some of the author's compound terms seem to us exceedingly uncouth and barbarous. A striking example occurs in the

very title-page, where the phrase 'Natural History' is used as an adjective before 'System,' which is certainly a gross innovation on the English idiom. Again, what are we to understand by 'mineral coal?' Does M. Mohs mean to imply that there are other sorts of coal, not mineral? We may, perhaps, however, understand the term mineral differently from him. We have not forgotten that *atmospheric* water is the only species of *mineral* water which he describes: indeed, he can describe no other under the genus, because it is defined to be 'without odour or sapidity.'

M. Mohs attaches great importance to crystallization, and he threatens us with a new system of crystallography, because that of Haüy 'does not seem to him to be sufficient.' His system is indeed in a great measure founded on crystallization: but we should without hesitation say that every system, formed on this principle, can serve no other purpose than that of puzzling and confounding the learner. It is valuable to those who have advanced in mineralogy: but the fact, that few minerals are commonly found crystallized in nature, or at least so perfectly crystallized as to afford any guide to the student, is sufficient to deter a rational teacher from beginning with this characteristic.—As this forms a prominent feature in the distinctive characters of the system, it is also very obtrusively apparent in the nomenclature. Every species, indeed, has some such prefix to its name as rhombohedral, prismatoidal, macrotypous, &c., which are for the most part altogether superfluous and tautological; and in such cases as 'prismatic Epsom-salt,' 'hexahedral rock-salt,' 'octahedral iron,' (the names here assigned to common Epsom-salt, rock-salt, and iron,) they appear not a little ludicrous. They may even mislead a beginner into the notion that minerals, with such sounding epithets, are something very different from those with which he is familiar under their usual names.

For purposes of brevity, the author has invented a sort of algebraical signs, which are far from being either plain or elegant. *P*, for example, though always printed in the same type, has three significations. If the system of crystals 'be rhombohedral, *P* will be an isosceles six-sided pyramid; if it be pyramidal, *P* will be an isosceles; and if it be the prismatic, *P* will be a scalene four-sided pyramid.' No man, who thus sits down and coolly invents confusion by system, can, we think, be capable of arranging any of the kingdoms of nature for the instruction of students, whatever his own acquirements may be in science.

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That there is much virtue in an *if* has been understood since the time of the old Spartans. M. Mohs, however, takes great credit to himself for introducing this said *if* into mineralogy: for, by means of conditional characters, 'that distracting crowd of words, which is no where more insupportable than in natural history, is avoided.' *If* he thus gains any thing in brevity, however, he assuredly loses it in accuracy and elegance. It is his *if* that so confounds his *P* in the sentence above quoted.

We must now take our leave of M. Mohs, on whose work we should not have expended so much time, had it not come to us under such high encomiums as if it were about to supersede all former systems, like that of his predecessor Werner. Its claim to effect this change will be deducible from the outline of the system above given, and from the remarks which we have felt it our duty to make. These strictures may be termed severe by M. Mohs and his friends: but, as we are decidedly of opinion that his system ought not (at least in its present form) to be adopted, we deemed ourselves obliged to be explicit in our objections. The greatest merit of the work as a systematic arrangement consists, we think, in the establishment of the *orders*; which might be made a valuable portion of a reformed arrangement, if the author should ever be induced (which is very doubtful) to give up his long and harsh compound names of genera and species. We should also hint that he ought to venture no more to the press with an English book, till his MS. has been thoroughly revised, and purged of German idioms. Perhaps he would do well to follow the example of Mr. Jeremy Bentham, and not attempt to write any part of his work, but intrust some friend with his ideas, who might be able to put them into a form fit for the public eye.

ART. XII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.* For the Year 1820. Part II. 4to. 1l. 15s. sewed. Nicol and Son, &c.

WE have dropt by accident a little into arrear with our report of the Transactions of this learned body: but we shall endeavour now to discharge our debt without delay.

NATURAL HISTORY, ANATOMY, &c.

On the Milk Tusks, and Organ of Hearing of the Dugong. By Sir Ey. Home, Bart. — This animal has not hitherto been seen in its complete and full grown state: but we have here the author's remarks on the milk tusks and organ of hearing of

a perfect skull belonging to one of these fish. The whole of a tusk was found to be solid, shewing that it had arrived at maturity, and was therefore only a milk tusk; and it closely resembled the milk tusk of the narwhal and the elephant. These tusks have been mistaken for the permanent tusks, and of the real appearances of the latter in the dugong, full grown, we are ignorant. The grinding teeth most resemble those of the hippopotamus. With regard to the organ of hearing, the nearest approach is to that of some tribes of whales, and the dugong does not belong to those genera which live principally on the surface, nor to those that penetrate the unfathomable depths: but it feeds on the plants that grow at the bottom of the sea, and will come in great numbers to the harbours of uninhabited islands; remaining for many hours in the shoal water, where it also finds food. It is about 20 feet long, and is good to eat when cooked for the table.

During an accidental delay in writing this paper, the author was furnished with materials for shewing the appearances of the permanent tusks, which form an essential character in the animal; and for proving that, while young, it has incisors in the lower jaw. This is a curious circumstance, and is so far an approach to ruminating animals, whose incisors are only in the lower jaw. They enable the young dugong to crop the tender plants, but are no longer wanted when it grows up.

Upon the different Qualities of the Albumum of Spring and Winter-felled Oak Trees. By Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq. F. R. S. — Although but three pages in length, this paper is very interesting, like most of those which proceed from this excellent vegetable physiologist. — The opinion has been very general that the timber of oak-trees felled in winter is superior to that of trees felled in spring: yet, on account of the increased value of bark, the practice of winter-felling was discontinued. It was then suggested to take off the bark in the spring, and to suffer the tree to stand till the ensuing winter; thus obtaining the advantages of both seasons of felling. Many facts convinced Mr. Knight that the durability of albumum is increased considerably by this mode of peeling in the spring and felling in the succeeding winter; and experiments, comparative of the timber under each mode of treatment, confirmed the asserted fact of the superior durability of timber in spring-peeled trees, felled in the next winter.

On the Mode of Formation of the Canal for containing the Spinal Marrow, and on the Form of the Fins (if they deserve that Name) of the Proteosaurus. By Sir Ev. Home. — The cliffs of Lyme furnish the fossil organic remains of the skeleton of this animal, of which a minute anatomical description

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is here given; but it is not susceptible of an intelligible abridgment. The proteosaurus 'partakes more of the fish than of the whale-tribe.' The only bones undescribed were those of the pelvis; and these, says the author, have been at last brought under my observation by a specimen found at Watchet, in Somersetshire, and lately purchased for the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons. 'The specimen is four feet six inches in length, and is more complete in all respects than any other specimen that has been met with.'

Some Experiments on the Fungi which constitute the colouring Matter of the Red Snow discovered in Baffin's Bay. By Francis Bauer, Esq. F. L. S. — The first of our late expeditions to the Arctic circle furnished very little new matter for natural history; the phænomenon of the red snow being the only curious subject brought forwards on this occasion. The investigation of the nature of this red colour could not have fallen into better hands than those of Mr. Bauer; and the cold weather and snow of the winter of 1819 were extremely favourable for the inquiry. From the month of March, 1819, Mr. Bauer had preserved a portion of the original sediment of the red snow, brought from Baffin's Bay; during which time the fungi constituting that sediment had considerably increased in number: but the newly formed fungi remained colourless, and formed a kind of whitish crust at the top of the sediment. Mr. Bauer ascertained that these fungi really vegetate and propagate in the snow, by immersing the sediment of them in that substance; when they grew beautifully in the hard frozen mass, and perforated it with numerous cells which were filled with the vegetating plants. The ordinary size of the full grown red fungi of Baffin's Bay is about $\frac{1}{16}$ part of an inch in diameter: the largest are about $\frac{1}{16}$ part of an inch; and some are even $\frac{1}{16}$ part of an inch. In one experiment, they even rose and spread in rays and pyramids nearly three inches long. At last, in the field of the microscope the same shaped globules as in the original red fungi were perceived; and in other experiments bright red fungi were seen. Mr. B. therefore concluded that, though the excessive cold and exposure to sharp air and wind may kill the primitive fungi, their seeds will retain sufficient vitality to vegetate and propagate if immersed in snow, their natural soil. Hence it is proved that there are certain plants which want the temperature of snow for their growth, while others require 85° to 100° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. Drawings of the vegetating red fungi are annexed to this paper. *Some*

Some Account of the Dugong. By Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, Governor of Sumatra.—We have here the account of a dissection of this animal at Singapore by two French naturalists, who sent a dissertation to Sir Joseph Banks. The Dugong examined measured eight feet, and it is said ‘afforded no less interest under the knife than satisfaction on the table, as the flesh proved to be most excellent beef.’ In form, this animal resembles the *cetacea*, having a broad horizontal tail, and two pectoral fins, without nails. The *mammæ* are small, and situated immediately below the pectoral fins. The stomach is large, and the relative position of the cardiac and pyloric orifices is nearly as in the human subject. The heart is on the left side of the thorax, and double. A very minute anatomical description shews that this animal is in its structure distinctly of the class *mammalia*. It is never found on land, nor in fresh water, but in inlets of the sea, two or three fathoms deep.

The Ikan dugong is considered by the Malays as a royal fish, and the King is intitled to all that are taken. Its flesh is deemed superior to that of the buffalo or the cow. Poets will find materials for their talents in the account that such is the maternal affection of the mother dugong, that, when her young one being taken makes a sharp cry, she follows it to the margin of the sea, and suffers herself to be also made captive. It is said also that the young one sheds tears, and that they are carefully preserved as a charm by the common people; the possession of which is supposed to secure the affections of those to whom they are attached, in the same manner as they attract the mother to her young. This idea is at least as poetic, and certainly more natural, than the fable of the Syren’s song.

Observations on the Human Urethra, showing its internal Structure as it appeared in the Microscope of F. Bauer, Esq. By Sir Ev. Home.—Notwithstanding the accompaniment of numerous finely executed plates, exhibiting views of the human urethra in the microscope, this paper is not interesting; and the minute description of the appearances observed under the magnifier is not open to useful abridgment.

An Account of a new Mode of performing the High Operation for the Stone. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart.—After much expence in journeys to France for information respecting the high operation, Mr. Carpue again set the example of this mode of practice, which had been laid aside for perhaps nearly a century in this country. Sir Everard has adopted it, but with a claim to an improvement. An incision was made beginning

beginning at the pubes, four inches in length, in the direction of the *linæ alba*, between the pyramidal muscles. A silver catheter, open at the end, was then passed into the bladder by the urethra; and, when the point was felt by the finger, in the wound, pressing up the fundus, a stilet that had been concealed was forced through the coats of the bladder, and followed by the end of the catheter: the stilet was then withdrawn, and the opening through the fundus of the bladder enlarged toward the pubes by a probe-pointed bistoury, sufficiently to admit two fingers: after which the catheter was withdrawn. The fundus of the bladder was held up by one finger, and the stone examined by the fore-finger of the right hand. A pair of forceps, with a net attached, was then passed down into the bladder, and the stone directed into it by the finger. A slip of linen had one end introduced into the bladder, and the other was left hanging out of the wound. A flexible catheter without the stilet was passed into the bladder by the urethra, and kept there by an elastic retainer surrounding the penis. In three weeks, nothing of disease remained, the wound had become superficial, and the bladder retained eight or ten ounces of urine.

Particulars respecting the Anatomy of the Dugong, intended as a Supplement to Sir Thomas Raffles's Account of the Animal. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. — Several imperfect historical accounts of this animal having excited farther curiosity, a young entire female was obtained, four feet six inches long, and the viscera of a male eight feet long, preserved in spirits with the dried bones. A figure of the animal, from a drawing by Mr. Clift, is subjoined to this paper, and plates of the viscera and bones. The most remarkable structure is that of the ventricles of the heart, which are not conjoined, but shewn distinctly separated. The resemblance of the figure of other viscera is very similar to that of the human creature and other mammalia. It is scarcely necessary to add that this is a satisfactory paper.

On the Compressibility of Water. By Jacob Perkins, Esq. — To determine the truth of his opinion that water is a compressible fluid, Mr. Perkins instituted some very ingenious experiments, and constructed an instrument which was called a Piezometer; being a cylinder of three inches diameter, and 18 inches long, made water-tight at one end, and having at the other end a cap screwed off and on at pleasure, also made water-tight. A rod or plunger passed through a tight stuffing box, and above the stuffing box was fixed a flexible ring. A cannon of sufficient size to contain the piezometer was fixed
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vertically in the earth, and the touch-hole plugged tight: a cap was then screwed on at the mouth, and in the centre of it a small forcing pump was screwed, the piston of which was 5-8th of an inch in diameter. An aperture was made in the cap, to introduce a valve in order to ascertain the degree of pressure. One pound pressure on this valve indicated an atmosphere. The piezometer was then placed in the cannon, and the water forced till the cap leaked; the valve indicating a pressure of 100 atmospheres. The piezometer being taken out, the flexible ring was found to be eight inches up the rod; 'evidently proving the rod to have been forced into the cylinder that distance, shewing also a compression of one per cent.' This fact proves either that the gun expands, or that the water enters the pores of the cast iron; or both these circumstances contribute to produce this effect.

Other experiments, by plunging vessels to great depths in the sea, confirmed this opinion. The piezometer was sunken by means of lead to the depth of 500 fathoms, which is nearly equal to the pressure of about 100 atmospheres; and the gauge or ring was found raised eight inches, indicating a compression of one per cent. — Empty bottles were also plunged in the sea to various depths, as low as 500 fathoms; the mouths of them being securely closed. At 150 fathoms, no water entered; at 250 fathoms, a small quantity of water was forced in; at 300 fathoms, the bottle was broken, and the neck only drawn up, the condensed sea-water having found its way through the sealing, and the cork having been compressed into half its length. It is conceived that the water must have been forced through the coverings of the cork, in very minute particles, to fill the bottle. The water thus condensed, on drawing up the bottle near the surface, pressed the cork back into the neck; and, owing to the resistance of the coverings, the neck was separated from the body of the bottle. — In another experiment, sinking the bottle 270 fathoms, on drawing it up it was nearly filled with water, and the sealings were quite entire. When this compressed water was poured into another vessel, it effervesced like Spa-water. On plunging to 500 fathoms, one bottle was crushed to atoms, but another came up entire, filled with water.

Some improvements here described being made in the piezometer, the instrument, filled with water, was subjected in the hydraulic press to a pressure of 326 atmospheres, when an increase of water amounting to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. was perceived.

On Sounds Inaudible by certain Ears. By William Hyde Wollaston, M. D. — The object of this paper is not to con-
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sider ordinary deafness, but the inability of the human ear in some cases to perceive certain sounds, though performing well its general functions: that is, having an insensibility to sounds that are at one or the other extremity of the scale of musical notes. Dr. W. has observed that other ears may be reduced to the same state, and that, 'when the mouth and nose are shut, the tympanum may be so exhausted by forcible attempts to take breath by expansion of the chest, that the pressure of the external air is strongly felt on the *membrana tympani*: in which state of tension from external pressure, the ear becomes insensible to grave tones, without losing in any degree the perception of sharper sounds.' A few experiments in illustration of this position are then related; and several cases of this partial deafness are mentioned, in which the individuals were insensible to various notes on the musical scale, and to some sounds of birds. — We do not observe any practical inference from these considerations; and Dr. W. states his unwillingness to occupy time with idle speculations: but he thinks that several of the facts which he has related are interesting, 'and may serve to justify some latitude of conjecture beyond the strict evidence of our senses.'

MATHEMATICS, MECHANICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

On a new Principle of constructing Ships in the Mercantile Navy. By Sir Robert Seppings, F. R. S. — We cannot, without the assistance of diagrams, fully explain the nature of this memoir; and, if we could, it would be perhaps of little interest to the generality of our readers. At the same time, it is a most important communication to persons engaged in the construction of merchant-vessels, as also to those whose property is frequently intrusted to the safety which such "frail barks" are calculated to bestow.

Sir Robert Seppings commences by pointing out the defects of the present construction; which are so gross and palpable that we should have been unwilling to credit the statement, had it not proceeded from an authority on which we could place the utmost confidence. Having explained the nature of these defects and their consequences, in the most convincing manner, the author proceeds to shew in what way they may be best corrected, which he also illustrates in a manner equally simple and satisfactory. We recommend the attentive perusal of the article itself to such of our readers as may be interested in the subject; who, we are persuaded, will feel the force and importance of the author's observations.

On

On the Errors in Longitude as determined by Chronometers at Sea, arising from the Action of the Iron in the Ships upon the Chronometers. By George Fisher, Esq. — Much has lately been written respecting the prejudicial effect of iron on the direction of the compasses at sea, and the inquiries made have been ultimately attended with the best possible success. A new fact is now brought forwards, not less important than former discoveries, and which will doubtless equally engage the attention of mathematicians and philosophers. It appears from this communication of Mr. Fisher, that not only the iron on board has a tendency to disturb and derange the bearing of the compasses, but that it also affects the rates of the chronometers: so that the two most important instruments in navigation are subject to irregularities which it seems impossible to counteract, but which it is of the greatest consequence to estimate and correct.

That the rates given with the chronometers, and those which they are afterward found to have on ship-board, are usually at variance with each other, is a fact very generally known; and that a magnet brought near to a watch, or chronometer, will affect its rate, is likewise, we believe, as generally admitted. Indeed, if we do not very much mistake, it was from a full knowledge of the latter fact that Mr. Lancaster, a late ingenious watchmaker of Plymouth Dock, first proposed and constructed his chronometers with gold balance springs; a practice which we understand is still followed by his son. We do not, however, mention these circumstances with any view to detract from the importance of the present memoir, or to deny the novelty of the idea which attributes the acceleration of the watches to the iron of the vessel; for we believe that this has never before been suggested.

As our readers will doubtless be gratified to learn the circumstances which led Mr. Fisher to the above conclusion, we shall make a considerable extract from his memoir:

‘The sudden alteration in the rates of chronometers, when taken on board of ships, has been frequently observed by intelligent seamen; and is generally ascribed to the motion of the vessels. Before, however, I attempt to account for this alteration, I shall first prove that it actually takes place; and, in order to do this, shall relate the circumstances connected with the chronometers on board the *Dorothea* and *Trent*, commanded by Captain Buchan, which occurred during the late voyage to the North Pole.

‘Soon after the arrival of the ships on the coast of Spitzbergen, the chronometers on board the *Dorothea* (five in number) were found

found to be rapidly gaining on their former rates as determined in London previous to the ship's sailing; in consequence of which the land appeared considerably to the westward of its true position as determined by lunar observation, and they were found to be still gaining daily, which appeared not only from each subsequent set of lunars, but also by comparing the longitude of different points of land determined by the chronometers, with the longitude of the same points ascertained in the same way some time afterwards.

‘ For instance; the longitude of a remarkable point of land on the north-west coast of Spitzbergen, called Cloven Cliff, was found by a mean of the observations taken with the chronometers on June 21. 1818, to be $10^{\circ} 35' 27''$ E.; but the longitude of the same point of land on July 31. was $10^{\circ} 15' 37''$ E., making a difference of no less than about $20'$ of longitude in five weeks; that is, estimating the longitude with the same rates and errors as determined in London before their departure; from this, therefore, it appears, they had been gaining on their former rates, or had been increasing their gaining rates, and diminishing their losing ones.

‘ An opportunity soon afterwards occurred of observing the effect produced upon the chronometers by removing them on shore. On the 9th of August, the chronometers, nine in number, were landed on an island, where a temporary observatory had been erected for the purpose, and the latitude of which had been accurately determined with a repeating circle made by Troughton, when it was found that the acceleration immediately ceased; for the longitude of the place by chronometers, August 12., was $9^{\circ} 42' 36''$ E., but on the 27th, it was $10^{\circ} 1' 0''$ E., making a difference of $18' 24''$ of longitude in fifteen days, using the former rates.

‘ Since, therefore, the chronometers were *getting easterly* by their removal on shore, the acceleration must have ceased; which will appear upon consideration.

‘ A similar circumstance was observed by Lieut. Franklin to take place with the chronometers on board the Trent, which were four in number; and he observes, “ It may be worthy of remark, that the chronometers taken out by the Hon. Captain Phipps, showed too great westerly longitude, and consequently gained on these seas. The fact of so many chronometers altering their rates the same way, is curious, but I am not aware that any cause can be assigned.”

After some other observations relative to the peculiar action of five of the chronometers, which did not immediately attain their land-rates on being brought on shore, Mr. F. gives the following table, containing a comparison of their several ‘ rates on board and what they *would have been* on shore:’

Chronometers.	Error, Greenwich time.	Difference.	Interval.	Mean Rates at Sea.	Mean Rates on Shore.
No. 1. Earnshaw.	April 11. + 7.40.1 Aug. 25. + 26.32.2	+ 18.52.1	Days. 136	+ 5.0	+ 3.9
2. Arnold.	April 11. - 0.42 Aug. 25. - 4.15	- 3.33	136	- 1.5	- 6.2
3. Arnold.	May 7. - 1.44 July 2. - 3.36	1.52	56	- 2.0	- 6.5
4. Barraud.	April 1. - 0.1 Aug. 25. + 5.55.5	+ 5.56.5	146	+ 2.5	+ 1.2
5. Arnold.	April 15. - 0.58 Aug. 25. - 28.48	- 28.10	132	- 12.8	+ 34.4
6. Earnshaw.	April 11. + 1.13 Aug. 25. + 0. 2.2	- 1.10.8	156	- 0.5	- 6.38
7. Pennington.	April 11. + 0.53 Aug. 25. + 13.57	+ 15.3.5	156	+ 5.8.	- 0.65
8. Arnold.	April 15. - 0.24 Aug. 25. - 15.53.5	+ 16.17.5	134	+ 7.5	- 2.5
9. Baird.	April 15. + 0.25.1 Aug. 25. + 5.12.5	+ 4.47.4	132	+ 2.2	- 5.16

The errors of the chronometers in April were those obtained in London before the ships sailed; those on the 25th August were determined at the Observatory on Dane's Island, Spitzbergen, the longitude of which was determined by a great many observations of the distances of the sun and moon for several days with Troughton's eight-inch sextants and reflecting circles. The rates in the column entitled "Mean Rates at Sea" are deduced by dividing the difference of the errors by the interval. The rates in the column entitled "Mean Rates on Shore" or more properly what they *would have had*, are means between the rates of chronometers on shore before leaving England, and those obtained at Spitzbergen; and although a mean between the rates of chronometers obtained at different times, may not accurately be the mean rate they would have had during the interval, it is

times, from the continued variation to which they are subject; yet, upon comparing the two last columns together, of the rates thus deduced, it will be perceived, that in all the chronometers their gaining rates had either been increased, or their losing ones diminished on ship-board, or in other words, they had all been accelerated.

Such are the facts from which Mr. Fisher has drawn his important conclusion, 'that the iron of a vessel accelerates the action of the chronometers;' and it remains for mathematicians to trace the cause of this acceleration, and to devise some method of computing its effects.

As it is very difficult to find a piece of iron, or steel, which has not in it some directive quality, we may easily conceive that the balance of a watch is not entirely free from a like action: but every thing possessing a directive quality, and freely suspended, will have a tendency to oscillate, if put out of its natural direction. A watch-balance, consequently, under this supposition, oscillates partly in consequence of its directive quality, and on the other hand in consequence of the impelling power of the spring: therefore, when the directive power is increased by the approach of a magnet, or of a mass of iron, which is known to produce a similar effect, the rate of oscillation ought to change; and, though we cannot conceive why that change should in all cases be to accelerate, yet, looking to the above results, it seems impossible to deny or to doubt the fact. At the same time, we must observe that, in the tables which Mr. Fisher has published, containing the sea and land-rates of more than one hundred chronometers, (chiefly if not entirely derived from the observation of captains in the India service,) the same uniform acceleration is not found to obtain: for, rejecting such chronometers out of this table as appear to be really defective, we find about 74 which gained on their land-rates, and 30 which lost: the mean in the former case being $+1''.2$, and in the latter $-1''.4$; — whence it seems but fair to infer that a watch may gain or lose on board according to circumstances, and that this gain or loss is more in high than in low latitudes. At all events, the subject is of great national interest, and will no doubt attract the attention both of our navigators and our philosophers.

A Sketch of an Analysis and Notation applicable to the Estimation of the Value of Life-Contingencies. By Benjamin Gompertz, Esq. F.R.S. — It is impossible for us to give our readers any intelligible account of the nature of this paper, which runs through eighty quarto pages, full of the most intricate and abstruse algebraical formulæ; and which, we apprehend, will be passed over as more learned than useful by every person who takes up the volume. We cannot conceive

the utility of highly refined calculations, when they must ultimately rest on very uncertain data; which is necessarily the case in questions relating to life-assurances. They remind us of a story which we have somewhere heard, of an American captain who was always in the habit of using *Rio's* "Tables," and the most accurate method of working out his lunar observations, while the observations themselves were taken with a *wooden quadrant* of his own construction, which would probably not give him the angle *true* to the nearest *degree*; yet, in his calculations, he had regard to the fractions of a *second*.

— It is by no means our intention to assert that the doctrine of assurances is beyond the reach of mathematical investigation: but we contend that it is useless to attempt the highest degree of refinement in our calculations, while the data on which they rest are so precarious and uncertain.

On the Measurement of Snowdon by the Thermometrical Barometer. By the Rev. F. J. H. Wollaston, B.D. F.R.S. — In the Philosophical Transactions for 1817, Mr. Wollaston published his description of the thermometrical barometer, by which the altitudes of mountains, &c. may be taken on principles somewhat similar to those of the barometer. It is known that the temperature at which water begins to boil depends on the barometrical pressure; and, therefore, by observing the degree of heat necessary to produce this effect, the barometrical pressure may be inferred, and thence the altitude of the place of observation. — In the article before us, the author gives the results of certain experiments made on the height of Snowdon, which appear to agree very well with previous determinations; but we doubt much whether this apparatus will ever supplant the more simple process by the barometer.

Astronomical Observations. By Stephen Groombridge, Esq. F.R.S. — These tables consist of observations on the solstices of 1818 and 1819, and on the oppositions of the new planets Vesta, Pallas, and Ceres. They occupy but two pages, and call for no particular remark.

This volume closes with the usual lists and index.

ART. XIII. *Practical Hints in Domestic Rural Economy*; relating particularly to the Utility, Formation, and Management of Fruits, Kitchen and Cottage Gardens, and Orchards, &c. &c. By William Speechly. 8vo. pp. 190. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

HORTICULTURAL readers will not be surprized to learn that their old friend Mr. Speechly has here presented them with an exceedingly useful little work; which, like the author's

"Treatise

"*Treatise on the Culture of the Vine*," will probably gain a permanent circulation among operative gardeners. The *Hints* are short, plain, and the result of experience; and country-gentlemen, who do not keep a professed gardener, will find their advantage in having Mr. Speechly's book to consult.

Respecting the preservation of peach and nectarine trees, a note occurs at p. 83., by which many of us may profit, though the frequent decay of these delicate trees must have some other than the occasional cause here assigned :

The dissolution of peach and nectarine trees, trained against walls, is sometimes brought on by a cause which, it is to be regretted, is not more generally known and attended to.

The decay of peach and nectarine trees almost uniformly commences on the upper side of the large branches. The cause of this defect, as I have constantly observed, is brought on by snow being permitted to lodge on the horizontal branches during the winter and spring months, but more particularly at the time of the rising of the sap in the spring. Snow, lodging on the branches during that period, generally proves highly detrimental to them.

In a severe season, the snow goes off by *slow degrees*, and what is dissolved by the rays of the sun by day is constantly congealed into ice by the frost at night. Now, the capillary vessels, which are thus exposed, being surcharged with moisture in the evening, the frost which comes on at night freezes the sap in the vessels which contain it, and, causing it to expand, thus tears the vessels asunder, and brings on a decay of that part of the branch.

This points out the utility and necessity of removing snow from off the branches of peach and nectarine trees during the winter and spring months. The best mode of performing this requisite operation is by means of a light besom, or large whisk. The strokes must be directed from the middle of the tree to the extremities of the branches; applied in a contrary direction, they might endanger the blossom-buds, and particularly when the latter become turgid with their circulating juices, in the spring.

Mr. Speechly is not a convert to Mr. Knight's ingenious theory that the progeny of apple-trees participates in the degeneracy of the parent-trunk through age. Mr. Knight, in his treatise on the *Culture of the Apple and Pear*, published a great many years ago, observed that "the moil, the red-streak, with the musts, and golden-pippin, are in the last stage of decay; and the stire and fox-whelp are hastening rapidly after them:" but Mr. Speechly contends, that the golden-pippin is yet in very high perfection; that they were brought abundantly to Covent-Garden market in 1818, and that in 1819 he grew a crop of uncommonly fine ones himself, a sample of which was sent to the Horticultural Society, who, in acknowledging the receipt of them, solicited cuttings of his trees to be used for grafting. Of the two, if we must give

up one, we would rather part with the theory than the pippin; and at all events we shall continue to eat the apple as long as we can obtain it.

The first intimation that we recollect to have seen of this theory was in the Philosophical Transactions for 1798, part ii. p. 292.; where Mr. Knight says, "The durability of the apple and pear I have long suspected to be different in different varieties; but that none of either would vegetate with vigour much, if at all, beyond the life of the parent-stock, *provided that died from mere old age.*" Again:

"Cuttings from seedling apple-trees of two years old were inserted on stocks of twenty years old, and in a bearing state: but these have now been grafted nine years, and, though they have been frequently transplanted to check their growth, they have not yet produced a single blossom. I have since grafted some very old trees with cuttings from seedling apples of five years old. Their growth has been extremely rapid, and there appears no probability that their time of producing fruit will be accelerated, or that their health will be injured by the great age of the stocks. A seedling apple-tree usually bears fruit in 13 or 14 years: and I therefore conclude, that I have to wait for a blossom, *till the trees from which the grafts were taken attain that age.* Every cutting taken from the apple, and probably from every other tree, will be affected by the state of the parent-stock. If that be too young to produce fruit, it will grow with vigour but will not blossom, and if it be too old, it will immediately produce fruit, but will never make a healthy tree."

Here is shadowed out that theory which was afterward more elaborately unfolded and explained by Mr. K. in his "Treatise on the Pear and Apple." The paternal offspring of vegetables in their buds and bulbs exactly resemble their parents, as we see in the propagation of flowers by roots, and in the engrafting of fruit-trees: but the seminal offspring of plants are generated by two parents, are nourished by the female, and are constantly exhibiting new varieties, as we perceive in apple-trees raised from seed; and in peas, beans, peaches, grapes, &c. &c., produced in endless diversity, by impregnating the stigmata of one flower with the farina of another of a different species. Those who are acquainted with Mr. Knight's writings know the extreme delicacy and success with which he has pursued his experiments in this direction. Grafts, according to him, though transplanted into other trees, are still a simple elongation of the original tree, and feel the effect of age, like the trees from which they are taken. If this be true, all those plants, which are continually propagated by bulbs, suckers, wires, and buds, must in time degenerate with their parent-plants; and the degeneracy can be cured

cured only by applying to other varieties more lately derived from a seminal offspring.

Mr. Speechly, however, is quite shocked at a theory which he thinks may possibly injure the trade of the nursery-man, and act as an obstacle to orchard-planting! (P. 185.) Nay, he goes so far as to foretell that, if the various kinds of apples and pears are cultivated with due care and judgment on new soils, 'they will not only continue true to their respective kinds, but that each kind will also continue to produce, in favorable seasons, fruit possessing its original quality, and in its genuine purity, so long as the sun and the earth endure.' If this flourish does not encourage orchard-planters and nursery-men, they must be the most unreasonable of mortals; and Mr. Knight must have a firm seat in his saddle if such a valorous tilt as this does not overthrow him. His theory, however, it must be admitted, is not altogether without its difficulties. If there be a limited period for the existence of organized matter in the vegetable creation, as in the animal, and if every vegetable offspring except that which is derived from seed be a simple elongation or division of the parent-life, the diseased appearance of young trees raised by graft is indeed readily explained: but not so readily can we account for the vigour of others after a very long culture, and for the improvement in some apparently increasing with the increase of age. Without going farther, we may specify the vine. It is well known that the oldest plants give the best wine, and that a long course of years is necessary to bring them to perfection. It is supposed that we have about fourteen hundred varieties of the vine; and we are told by Baron Picot de la Peyrouse, in his account of the agriculture of Montastruc, that in the Clos de Vogois, which is the vineyard where the greatest quantity of Burgundy wine is produced, no new plants have been set for three hundred years; the vines being renewed by laying the old trunks, but the root never being separated from its stock. This celebrated vineyard is never manured; and the soil, which is about three feet deep, is a limestone-gravel on limestone-rock. Its extent is 160 French arpents, from which is made in a good year 160 or 200 hogsheads: the wine is so excellent that it sells on the spot at five francs per bottle; and each hogshead contains about 260 bottles. The vineyard is of the Pipean grape. Now, as these plants, yet flourishing in the highest perfection, are not propagated from seed, but by layers or suckers from the roots, we do not exactly see how Mr. Knight can consider them as simple elongations of the parent-plant, participating in its natural decay; unless he attributes to the vine a natural

duration of life for which perhaps he can find no other example.

A note at page 189. rather surprizes us: it is this:

As stocks, for the purpose of ingrafting apples, are invariably raised from seed, (generally from crab-pippins,) whenever a cutting is taken from an aged tree in a state of decay, and ingrafted upon a thriving stock immediately from seed, it may with propriety be considered as a renovation from decrepit old age, to youth and health and vigour.

If the various kinds of apples would admit of being propagated by cuttings, in like manner as the gooseberry, and the currant, there would then be a greater apparent probability of their becoming debilitated by age and length of time; but it should be remembered, that by ingrafting, every individual apple-tree has an entirely new bottom from seed. And, even in respect to the raising plants by cuttings, there does not seem to be that tendency to degenerate and become exhausted by age and length of time, which some have supposed. Many of the old kinds of gooseberries are, at the present day, still the same, in appearance, in goodness, and in their manner of growing, as I recollect them to have been between sixty and seventy years ago.

In the first place, it is extraordinary that Mr. Speechly should be ignorant that apples do admit of being propagated by cuttings, in like manner as the gooseberry and currant.* If he will refer to the first volume of the Horticultural Transactions, art. xi., he will see a paper by Mr. Biggs, a working gardener, who exhibited to the Society a great number of very fine varieties of the apple; and who says, "The apple-tree will grow readily by cuttings, and trees raised in this way from healthy, one-year-old branches, with blossom-buds upon them, will continue to go on bearing the finest possible fruit in a small compass for many years." He adds his opinion that they are less liable to canker than when raised from grafting: "I have more than once experienced this in the golden pippin, cuttings of which have remained seven years in perfect health, when grafts taken not only from the same tree, but from the very branch, part of which was divided into cuttings, cankered in two or three years."

We should have been puzzled to understand the meaning of the expression "by engraffing, every individual apple-tree has an entirely new bottom from seed," if the former part of Mr. Speechly's note had not interpreted it to signify that the

* In the first volume of the Horticultural Transactions, art. vi., Mr. Knight, mentioning the different periods which different kinds of fruit-trees require to attain "the age of puberty," ascribes to the vine "three or four years" only.

stocks

stocks are raised from seed. His notion, then, is diametrically opposite to that of Lord Bacon, that "the cion over-ruleth the stock quite; and the stock is but passive only, and giveth aliment but no motion to the graft;" as also to that of Mr. Knight, who expresses his "confidence, from very extensive and long experience, that the graft derives nutriment only, and not growth from the young stock in which it is inserted, and that with the life of the parent-stock the graft retains its habits and its constitution." Mr. Speechly, we see, looks on the stock as over-ruling the scion: as restoring the latter, "when taken from an aged tree in a state of decay, to youth and healthful vigour." This, to be sure, is turning the tables on Lord Bacon and Mr. Knight with a vengeance: but he is perfectly consistent with the opinions which he held formerly; for in his useful work "*On the Culture of the Vine*," he says that scions engrafted on more vigorous trees *of the same genus* have thence acquired greater vigour in the growth of their leaf-buds and fruit-buds; and he adds that he had improved many kinds of vines, by engrafting those which have generally weak wood on plants which are stronger. Considerable obscurity envelopes the philosophy of engrafting; and several facts are recorded which imply a greater *reciprocal* influence and alliance between the stock and the scion than we have generally allowed. Mr. Bradley states an instance in which the scion of a variegated jasmine gave variegation to the leaves *below* it of the unvariegated jasmine on which it was grafted, though the graft itself perished. Mr. Lawrence inoculated some buds of a striped jasmine into the branches of the plain sort; and, as he asserts, he has several times experienced that, if the bud lives only two or three months, it will communicate its disease to the whole circumfluent sap, and the tree will become *entirely* striped. Mr. Fairchild budded a passion-tree, of which the leaves were spotted with yellow, into one that bore long fruit; and, though the buds did not take, in a fortnight yellow spots began to shew themselves about three feet above the inoculation, and in a short time afterward such spots appeared on a shoot *which came out of the ground on another part of the plant*. (Bradley on Gardening, vol. ii. p. 129.) Mr. Bradley, notwithstanding, considers the stock merely as a fund of vegetable matter which is to be filtered through the scion, digested, and brought to maturity as the time of growth in the vessels of the scion directs; for the scion, says he, preserves its natural purity and intent, though it be fed and nourished by a mere crab:—he accordingly assimilates grafting to planting.

E e 4. If

If the stock should be considered merely as a medium of nutrition, the reason is not very obvious why scions do not succeed when grafted on stocks of different genera, orders, and even classes. Du Hamel tried a great many experiments on this subject, but was always unsuccessful in his attempts; such as the pear on the oak, the elm, the plum, &c. A very intelligent working gardener, with whom we have conversed, told us he had often tried similar experiments without success: his expression was "that the scions always appeared to imbibe poison from the stock." The writers of the *Geoponica** all coincide on the subject of promiscuous engraftment; that is to say, they all agree that scions of one genus may be grafted on stocks of another. One of them, Democritus, says that if we graft the vine on the cherry, we shall have very early grapes; for at the season in which the cherry-tree has been accustomed to produce its own fruit, it will at the same period afford grapes. Virgil and Columella contend for the possibility of successfully grafting scions on stocks of different genera, orders, and classes. The latter particularly, in his work *De Arboribus*, devotes a chapter to prove this doctrine in opposition to more antient writers who had denied it; and he accordingly gives particular directions how to make the fig and the olive tree unite. Virgil also says that planes have been engrafted with apples; that the mountain-ash has been whitened with pear-blossoms; and that swine have munched acorns which have fallen from elms:

"*Et sæpe alterius ramos impune videmus
Vertere in alterius, mutataque insita mala
Ferre pyrum, et prunis lapidosa rubescere corna.*"

Geo. ii. 32.

"*Inseritur verò ex fœtu nucis arbutus horrida,
Et steriles platani malos gessère valentes;
Castanæ fagus, ornusque incanuit albo
Flore pyri: glandemque sues fregère sub ulmis.*"

Geo. ii. 70.

Virgil, however, was a poet as well as a philosopher, and might have exclaimed with Matt. Prior;

"Odd's life! must one swear to the truth of a song?"

It should, moreover, be acknowledged that, when we have to

* The Rev. T. Owen of Oxford translated the *GEOPONICA* some years ago, and also the Fourteen Books of Palladius Rutilius Taurus Æmilianus on Agriculture: so that any person desirous of knowing the state of science (such as it was!) in rural affairs among the antients may gratify his curiosity without learning Latin and Greek; which is no little encouragement.

translate

translate the names of plants from a dead language into a living one, — to engraft English scions on old Latin and Greek stocks, — we are in great danger of producing a hybrid progeny.

ART. XIV. *Elements of Medical Logick*, illustrated by practical Proofs and Examples. The Second Edition, with large Additions, particularly in the practical Part. By Sir Gilbert Blane, Bart., F. R. S., &c., and Physician to the King. 8vo. pp. 280. Underwood and Co. 1821.

ALL who are in any degree acquainted with the subjects which engage a physician's attention, and with the unceasing revolutions of medicine, must readily acknowledge the importance of any code of instructions which shall serve to guide the medical inquirer in his pursuit after truth. Hitherto, a liberal education, and an acquaintance with the rules of correct reasoning in general, have afforded him the only protection against error; and these, we still think, are his best and perhaps his sole securities. At the same time, we have to express our obligations to the veteran Sir Gilbert Blane, for the meritorious exertions which he has made in the work before us, in order to point out instances of false reasoning among medical authors; and to hold up in a conspicuous light the various causes which have impeded the progress of medical science.

The author has commenced his work by some strictures on the scepticism in which many ingenious men have indulged, respecting the efficiency of medicine as an art, and the certainty of the conclusions drawn from medical experience: — but this subject, of which Cabanis has given so admirable and satisfactory an exposition, is treated by Sir G. B. in a mere cursory manner. In considering the objections drawn from the difficulties by which we are met in all our inquiries into the physiology of man, he takes occasion to present us with an enumeration of the elementary principles of life; observing that

‘Feeling himself bound to exhibit an enumeration of what may be termed the elementary principles of life, — that is, of those properties and energies which constitute life and are peculiar to it, as distinguished from inanimate matter, — he submits to the profession the following, as the result of long and close meditation on the subject. They may be arranged as follows: 1. The Generative. 2. The Conservative. 3. The Temperative. 4. The Assimilative. 5. The Formative. 6. The Restorative. 7. The Motive. 8. The Sensitive. 9. The Appetitive. 10. The Sympathetic. This statement

ment differs both in its principle and matter from any with which the author is acquainted, inasmuch as it is not founded on an enumeration of functions, consisting in the play of the divers organs which constitute the frame of living organic bodies, and implying compound action and co-operation, but on principles pervading and actuating the whole system, and constituting the simple elements of these functions. It is meant to comprehend all the properties in which the essence of life consists, and which characterise and distinguish it from inanimate matter on the one hand, and from moral and intellectual nature on the other.

In all this, however, it appears to us that no new fact is stated, nor any ingenuity of arrangement introduced which merits the sounding terms accompanying the enumeration. The conservative principle certainly includes under it the temperative, the assimilative, the formative, and the restorative; for, without these, the preservation of the animal-frame would be but of short duration. The temperative itself, also, seems to involve in unnecessary obscurity the distinct powers of producing heat, and of resisting the destructive effects of a high external temperature: since the means which nature adopts to accomplish these two objects are certainly very different. One elementary principle, to which the author has alluded in the text, has yet not been admitted into this enumeration; — it is the converse of the formative, and is that by which the decayed and useless portions of the animal solids and fluids are absorbed, to be afterward thrown into new combinations, or expelled from the corporeal frame. It is, like some others, comprehended under the conservative principle: but we shall not follow the author by attempting to invent for it an appropriate name.

On the subject of sleep, Sir Gilbert has amused his readers with some interesting remarks:

‘It is observable that the refreshment of sleep is not in the simple ratio of its duration, the principal share of this act of restoration being found to take place in the beginning of it. If a person be at any time deprived of one-half or more of his usual portion of it, the inconvenience experienced is by no means in proportion to this privation; and habit will bring persons, whose affairs require it, to subsist in health and vigour with a small allowance of sleep. General Pichegru informed me, in the course of my professional attendance on him, that, in the career of his active campaigns, he had for a whole year not more than one hour of sleep at an average in the twenty-four hours. According to my own experience, I find that when I am called out of bed, after half an hour’s sleep, or less, I feel a very great difference in my feelings next day, from what I have felt when I have had no sleep at all. The powers of the sensorium seem to be wound up, as it were, at the most rapid rate in the first period of sleep; and great part of the re-
freshment

freshment in the later hours seems more imputable to the simple repose of the organs, than to the recruiting power peculiar to sleep. There are some persons to whom more or less sleep has become habitually necessary, in the course of the day, particularly after dinner; and they find that a few minutes of it satisfy nature. But the most striking illustration of this principle, with which I have met, is what I learned from a gentleman of great observation and intelligence, who had been long in China, and had an opportunity of seeing the habits of the missionaries. These pious and conscientious persons felt themselves bound to abstract as little time as possible from their duties, and took the following method of abridging the period of that sleep which habit had made necessary to them in the middle of the day. They threw themselves on a couch, with a brass ball in the hand, and under it a brass bason. The moment they dropped asleep, the ball dropped from their hand, and ringing on the bason, waked them. This they found afforded all the recruit which nature required.' (P. 48.)

To proceed to the main object of the author in the volume before us. He has enumerated and discussed at some length many of those sources of error which have misled physicians, and retarded in a remarkable manner the progress of medical improvement. These are six in number; — hypothetical reasoning; diversity of constitution; the difficulty of appreciating the efforts of nature, and distinguishing them from the operations of art; superstition; the ambiguity of language; and the fallacy of testimony. Early prejudices, deference to authority, and the influence of fashion, are also stated in conclusion as powerful auxiliaries to the causes already named, in betraying the medical inquirer into error. With regard to the first of these, we do not conceive that mere speculative opinions in medicine have always produced such injurious consequences as Sir Gilbert is willing to believe. How often do we find medical men entertaining the most opposite notions of the action of remedies, yet prescribing them for the same disease, and with equal success! Sydenham, with all his theoretical absurdities, is to this day, on most occasions, a safe guide in practice: but it must be admitted that the hypothesis of Brown, the work of a man wholly void of experience in medicine, did lead into practical errors of the most injurious character. Sir Gilbert Blane himself is not free from the charge of groundless hypothetical reasoning. 'It is conceivable,' says he, 'that these solid particles (*the detritus of the frame*) when set afloat in the blood, in order to be eliminated by their respective emunctories, may be detained, or by an *error loci* may be determined in a wrong outlet, thereby proving a source of disease. May not urinary concretions and various cutaneous disorders be produced by such a cause? There

There seems to be a like *error loci* in diabetes and dropsy; (P. 77.) From such hypotheses nothing can be gained, except an idle gratification of self-love, and a delusive conviction that we understand the true causes of phænomena, while we have only succeeded in expressing them in more formal language. Boerhaave, after all the strong terms in which his literary sins have been exposed to reprobation by the present author, might smile to see the *error loci*, of which he was so fond, again produced on the stage to play its part in the drama of medical hypothesis.

Under the head of Diversity of Constitution, Sir G. B. has introduced a variety of interesting matter; which, however, is not all appropriately arranged beneath this title. Not only diversities of constitution, but varieties in the character and stage of the same disease, are considered in this chapter, which will readily appear, when we inform our readers that the author has here discussed the cordial, the depletory, the purgative, and the expectant modes of managing continued fever, and the tonic and purgative treatment of chorea.

‘After the exposition,’ he says, ‘which has been made of the great variety of constitutions, would it be too much to affirm, that all the practical works in existence ought to be recomposed in order to insert in them, for the benefit of mankind, and the credit of the profession of physick, the following qualifying words? “The practice here recommended will be found to answer in a great majority of cases; but in imitating it, there are numerous exceptions to it, which it behoves every judicious and conscientious practitioner to bear in mind.”’ (P. 193.)

We really cannot compliment Sir G. B. on the originality of this saving clause, the substance of which must be very early impressed on the mind of every medical man of common acquirements.

The instances here given of the errors arising from the ambiguity of language are rather to be considered as examples of the slow progress of medical knowledge. Physicians were long ignorant of the true nature of sea-scurvy, and confounded it with cutaneous diseases; as they confounded scarlet-fever with measles, and common gonorrhœa with *lues venerea*. Dropsy, in like manner, which is adduced as another example of ambiguous language, was for many years considered as always connected with a debilitated state of the frame; but more recent inquirers, at the head of whom Grappengiesser and not Blackall must be placed, have ascertained that an inflammatory diathesis often accompanies dropsy; in which case it not only admits but demands the use of the lancet. The remaining example of the ambiguity of medical language

is Yellow Fever. This topic was treated by Sir Gilbert in his first edition at much length, and seemed to us to have furnished the original germ from which the work sprang. A more temperate view of the subject is now presented to us, the general tone of the author's argument is much subdued, and his expressions are cautiously qualified: but his feelings are still obviously much interested, and his language occasionally betrays his original eagerness in the discussion. According to him there are three distinct species of yellow fever; — the endemic, proceeding from the exhalations of the soil; — the contagious, 'arising from foul air engendered on board of ships, on long voyages, in circumstances of personal filth and want of ventilation;' — and the sporadic, originating in intemperance, fatigue, and insolation. As, however, the symptoms of these three supposed species appear, even from the author's own description, to be in all respects the same, (except, perhaps, in degree,) we feel justified in declaring our belief that the disease is actually the same in all, and that the term *yellow fever* affords no evidence of the ambiguity of medical language. To enter into the discussion of the contagious nature of yellow fever is at present foreign from our purpose: but we venture to state it as our opinion that this formidable disease, though not originally contagious in its nature, may become so under particular circumstances; and that there is reason to think that it has actually acquired this property on different occasions. Yet it appears to us that a greater evil is produced by denouncing yellow fever as a plague, and forming cordons of troops around the districts in which it prevails, than by considering it as in no instance of a contagious character. If we compare for a moment the mild precautions adopted in the United States of America, with the barbarous severities of the Spanish authorities, let us then say which has produced the most beneficial and which the most baneful effects. The yellow fever in Spain is indeed a pestilence, while in America it is not more formidable than our typhus in ordinary times.

The opinion of the public on the merits of the *Elements of Medical Logick* seems to have been favorably pronounced, by the appearance of a new edition: but, although very many improvements have been made on submitting the work a second time to the press, we do not think that, even in its amended form, it will add materially to the reputation of its able and worthy author, whose former labours had previously acquired for him a most respectable name. We give this reluctant opinion, because the materials of the volume before us are not often novel or interesting, and are combined without any remarkable display of learning or ingenuity; and we

are rather sorry to observe that its pages are interlarded with school-boy quotations of the most trite passages from the Latin poets. Thus Ovid furnishes "*Ingenuas didicisse fideliter artes*," &c., p. 158.; Virgil, "*Felix qui potuit rerum*," &c.; and the volume is closed by the following adaptation of a passage from the Georgics :

— "*Pater ipse colendi (medendi),
Haud facilem esse viam voluit, primusque per artem,
Movit agros, (ægros,) curis acuens mortalia corda.*"

It is but just, however, to remark that these *Elements of Medical Logick* have supplied, to a certain extent, a deficiency in our medical literature; and that we sincerely believe they will prove both instructive and amusing in the hands of the medical student.

ART. XV. *A Statistical, Historical, and Political Description of the Colony of New South Wales, and its dependent Settlements in Van Diemen's Land : with a particular Enumeration of the Advantages which these Colonies offer for Emigration, and their Superiority in many Respects over those possessed by the United States of America.* By W. C. Wentworth, Esq., a native of the Colony. 8vo. pp. 470. 12s. Boards. Whittakers.

THIS instructive work is in every respect a literary curiosity: it is the first native production of New South Wales; and it attests that rapid progress of another British colony in the higher arts of life, and in a knowledge of the principles of sound government, which announces an early national importance. With the advantage of a denser interior population, and of a hundred years more of formal civilized government, the Spanish colonies of America remain behind those of English foundation; and here, consequently, occurs another instance of the aptness of our people to create, and to preserve, the habits and institutions which are conducive to public prosperity and political organization.

Mr. Wentworth, it appears, was born in New South Wales, came for education to England, returned home at a maturer age, and, after a residence of five years in the colony, drew up this account of it: his object being, as he observes, to counteract the present system of management, which contemplates the entire population of the state as still in its childhood, legislates about the most trifling concerns, fixes the wages of labour, sets a price on articles brought to public market, prohibits the institution of distilleries and other profitable enterprizes, refuses the people municipal institutions, and

and elective magistrates, and in every thing resists the substitution of voluntary regulation for military obedience. The spirit of meddlesome direction detached America from British sway, is rendering burdensome in the West Indies the subsisting connection, and is preparing already in New Holland the bickerings of discontent and the aspirations of independence.

The first portion of this volume gives a statistical account of the colony in New Holland, only the eastern part of which is settled, and is termed New-South-Wales. Although the coast had been extensively explored by Cook and Flinders, yet the situation of the mouth of the great river Macquarie, which has recently been discovered by travellers in the interior, remains unascertained: but, wherever this river empties itself into the ocean, a great sea-port must perhaps ultimately arise, which will command a vast traffic of exportation and importation; and near the mouth of this river an early settlement should be undertaken.

In describing the town of Sidney, the author observes that the government-house and its domain occupy a station that is convenient for the mooring of vessels, and for wharfingers; and that the nation would do well to sell this ground off in lots, making provision for a public quay, and building a residence for the governor elsewhere. Rents are exorbitantly high at Sidney, and the price of land in the best situations is half as great as in London. The population is estimated at seven or eight thousand. — A girl's school was founded in 1800 by Governor King, on a singular plan. Fifteen thousand acres were set apart for defraying the expences of the institution; in which about sixty female children are boarded, taught to read, write, cypher, and sew, and are made to assist in various branches of the domestic economy. When their education is complete, they are assigned as servants to respectable families who apply for them, or are married to free persons of good character. Fifty acres of land are given in dower to each female who marries with the consent of the superintending committee.

In the town of Paramatta, half-yearly fairs have been established for the sale of stock, which are numerous attended; and a school has been founded there for the education of children of *the natives of the country*. Eighteen little blacks have been placed in it by their parents, and are making an equal progress with the European children. An interesting account of the anniversary meeting of the friends to the institution is copied into this volume from the Sydney Gazette of January 4. 1817.

Port-Jackson, Windsor, Liverpool, and other rising towns are described; and an increased military establishment is recommended, especially of soldiers enlisted for a limited number of years, who might be suffered to remain in the colony if they chose. The climate is said to be wholesome, and the dysentery which abounds is ascribed to the irregular use of spirituous liquors; a great ravage of small-pox is still remembered by the natives, but vaccination has been introduced, and is extensively employed. — The discovery of the river Macquarie, already mentioned, is narrated at p. 71; and the author congratulates his countrymen on the circumstance that this vast stream appears to run north and south, not east and west: justly observing that rivers so circumstanced have a greater diversity of productions raised on their banks than when their course is confined to the same parallel of latitude, and consequently will eventually convey a more various and important trade.

In the extensive directions which are given to the farmer, it is stated that beans, potatoes, apples, currants, and gooseberries degenerate in this climate, but that all other fruits and esculent vegetables are better than in England. Peaches especially abound, so much that they are employed, as in America, to fatten hogs, to make peach-cyder, and to distil into brandy. The lands are uninclosed, and those who breed cattle are compelled to employ herdsmen in order to prevent the animals from intruding on the crops. The native dog, which is a sort of wolf, is a great enemy to sheep. Milch-cows sell from 5*l.* to 10*l.*; ewes from 1*l.* to 3*l.*; and horses from 10*l.* to 30*l.*: but the price of stock is sinking rapidly. A census of the cattle was taken in 1817, when the horses exceeded 3000, the horned cattle 45,000, and the sheep 170,000. In 1808, a cow and calf were sold by public auction for 10*l.*

The settlements in Van Diemen's Land are next described: but the agricultural prospects are not inviting; and, although a good whale-fishery exists there, it is lamented that such restrictions are placed on the cultivation of it as to amount almost to a prohibition.

A forcible complaint is made at p. 164—172, against the conduct of a deceased governor of this settlement, who was somewhat irregularly deposed by the colony; and this fact shows that some house of assembly, some court of aldermen, some municipal institution, including a just representation of the principal free inhabitants, ought to be established by parliament. That jealousy of liberty, which is too much inspired among us, and pervades the ruling classes of this country, should not be suffered to shatter and shiver every

portion of the empire by its practical intolerance. — Excellent observations (as they appear to us) also occur on the influence of the system of government applied in the settlement during the last fifteen years: (see especially p. 219—226.) but they are fitter for official attention than for general reading. Various judicious alterations in the present policy are likewise suggested; which prove that the author does not wish to make sudden and violent but gradual and gentle changes. Methods are next pointed out for reducing the expenses of the colony, and the advantages which it offers for emigration are detailed with patriotic emphasis. Unless, however, our government would concede a gratuitous passage to those who wish to remove to New South Wales, the great distance and the charges of the voyage must operate as perpetual obstacles to extensive colonization. By receiving criminals from the East Indies, an increase might be made to those task-gangs into which the vicious population is formed; and thus some additional power would be acquired for undertaking those public works, that are most pressingly necessary to the convenience and prosperity of the settlement. In general, interference, not neglect, has occasioned the sufferings of the colonists.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR DECEMBER, 1821.

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *The Cavalier*, a Romance. By Lee Gibbons, Student of Law. 3 Vols. 12mo. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

While the Scottish novels have diffused general delight among the admirers of ingenious fiction, they are become answerable for having given birth to a swarm of imitators. The external part of these counterfeits is for the most part skilfully executed: the several volumes are distributed into the usual number of chapters, each of which is prefaced by a motto deemed appropriate by the author, and sometimes, after the manner of the Waverley school, from his own invention; and an old lowland ditty, newly furbished up, is occasionally interspersed in the body of the work. The industry of the fabricators is too unwearied to leave even the style and manner of their prototype unattempted; and they affect, therefore, not only to introduce similar machinery, but, as nearly as they can, to copy the personages of this spirited and lucrative species of novel. Thus we are sure to have a sort of half-conceived phantasm of an old woman with the form of a hag, and the

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mischief

mischief of a witch, mumbling out " quaint verses " and prophetic curses ; a kind of would-be Meg Merrilies, but thrown to a still more remote distance from its original by the awkward effort to approximate it. Dominie Samson also being considered as fair game, we have usually a pedant who quotes bad Latin, and thrusts in, on all occasions, a mass of heavy and intolerable prosing, in imitation of the inimitable and humorous sententiousness of that admirable piece of portraiture. As these fanciful beings are beyond the grasp of the second-rate writers in question, and the whole wardrobe of their imaginations is too scanty and ragged to clothe them in the semblance which they are so ambitious of imparting to them, the failure is palpable and the artifice at once detected. Captain Dalgetty, too, is another involuntary father of many degenerate sons.

Of this description of counterfeits is the *Cavalier*, by ' a student of law.' Whether the latter designation and the name be real or assumed, we know not. If real, the writer is

" Some clerk foredoomed his father's soul to cross,
Who penned a novel when he should engross."

We would, therefore, exhort him most strenuously to adhere to his profession, — a jealous one, that will " bear no rival near the throne." In other words, to pursue the paths of honourable industry, which may, with perseverance and steadiness, lead him to tranquil respectability, if not to fame.

As the novels of this school must be historical, the present relates to the times of the civil wars of King Charles. It is introduced by a preliminary account of the *finding of the MS.* according to the established recipe ; and almost every chapter is labelled, *secundum artem*, with a quotation from " an old play." The scene, indeed, is not Scottish, but is referred to the mountainous country of Derbyshire. In every other respect, it wears the Waverley livery, and follows its master with scrupulous obedience. Much of its humour turns on the quaint and scriptural phraseology of the Puritans : but the author is not content with being amusing ; and we doubt whether novel-readers will approve the *palming* of several pages of Rapin's History of England on them, as he has done at p. 111. of vol. i., with this sort of apology : ' It may perhaps be as well to digress here with a brief explanation of the difference between the established and puritan churches,' &c. Of the aptness of Mr. Lee Gibbons's quotations, for he levies the Eton grammar under constant contribution, an idea may be formed from this instance : he is talking of Cromwell's practice of never sitting down before a place but to carry it by storm, which he illustrates by the very appropriate verses, "*Pudet hæc opprobria nobis*," &c. &c. Never was such an eternal prosier let loose on us as a certain Doctor Grostete, who performs a conspicuous part in this fiction ; and as to the Meg Merrilies of this piece, Doll Jordan, the servility with which her portraiture has been copied will appear from a short extract :

His knock was soon answered by the woman from within, "What want ye?"

The corporal started a pace backward, and clapped his hand upon his sword-hilt.

The door opened, and the grey woman presented herself. The sybil was about sixty years of age, with a face not so remarkable for peculiar ugliness, as for its singular complexion of mingled brown and yellow, and its lines of blue wrinkles crossing the forehead and cheeks, like the marks of geographical limitation. The forehead was strikingly prominent, and her eye-brows, thick and matted, veiled in a degree the cutting fierceness of her sharp grey eyes; her stature was below the common size; and her whole appearance indicated the extremity of pinching want; she was clothed in grey, her dress consisting of a cloak, or roquelaure, wrapped close round her body, and girt with a hay-band, and her head covered with a cloth-cap of the same colour, from beneath the edge of which streamed the hag's scanty grey hair.

'Such is an outline of her picture; the horror of which was now increased by the partial darkness.

' "Will ye not visit my bonny house, Ralph?" said she. "Why knocked ye, an ye fear to enter?"

"Fear!" said Jellott, affecting a laugh. "I fear nought," said Doll. "Marry, but ye do, Ralph Jellott; ye'd liever be now wi' yer sword's point at the aword's point than talking to me here, at this dead hour. But fear not, ye're safe as my tabby cat, mon."

The soldier followed her in, and she shut and barred the cottage-door. A few embers of a wood-fire still glimmered on the hearth; near which sat the famed tabby cat, which, if the country people might be believed, was as great a witch, and worked as much mischief, as its ancient proprietor.

"Sit, mon, sit ye down," said Doll, pointing to a stool. When they were seated, she continued, "I wot ye ca'd on me, to sken yer fortin on the morrow: heard ye ne'er the old prophecy?"

"When the king is like to lose his crown,

Then must Banner Cross come down;

When the king regains the throne,

Falconridge will get his own."

"I have spaid yer chances, and either Jonathan or ye must bite the dust."

"What devil betrayed to ye our design?" said the trooper.

"Na matter; ye note I ha' your secret," replied the hag.

"An I feared ye would thwart us, spite o' yer charms, and yer brood of devils, I wad send ye packing to yer doom'd prison."

"He who lays finger on me, had better drown in a sea of boiling sulphur; the judgment of Cain shall be partial favour to his unheard-of penalty."

"Threaten not me, ye doating witch; threaten not a man, reckless and desperate; call all yer imps from hell, I fear ye not, neither shall ye juggle me out o' my life: what assurance have I,

that ye go not to Banner Cross, and curry favour wi' our sacrifice?"

"That assurance," replied the witch, "which binds ye to yer fellows, I hatred to the house of Falconridge."

"Ye hate the family, and wherefore?" said Jennett.

"I dinna know, Ralph; save that my hatred may spring out of my wretchedness: it is nat'ral for the poor to hate the rich, for the miserable to detest the happy; nay, must I declare it, for the wicked to seek the blood of the righteous. I pledge ye my soul, wi' heart and hand, wi' mind and body, will I join ye in this attempt; and though some o' ye may fa' i' the strife, yer purpose shall be accomplished."

It may be thought that we have treated these volumes somewhat cavalierly, but we cannot think that their merits will falsify our censure in the opinion of any competent judge: though, indeed, we are so tired and disgusted with these spiritless imitations, that we may possibly under-rate the ability which has been degraded in fabricating them, compared with the estimate of it which we should form if it were employed in original productions.

Art. 17. *A Legend of Argyle*: or, 'Tis a Hundred Years since. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Whittakers. 1821.

"*Ecce iterum, iterumque.*" The story of this addition to the Waverley bye-blows is laid with singular daring in the period of the rebellion of 1715, and the author has the temerity to bring Rob Roy again on the scene. The fate of poor Salmoneus does not appall him. "*Demens qui nimbos,*" &c.

Our criticism on this novel must be short and decisive. It is a work of so little interest, and is so lethargic from the beginning to the end, that we could almost suppose it to have been written with the benevolent object of administering a ready opiate to those who are troubled with wakefulness. We find nothing in it, indeed, which absolutely offends: but such a tame and feeble mediocrity marks its conception and execution, that if the author had been more absurd he would have been more amusing. One of the principal personages is the celebrated Jacobite Dr. King, of Oxford, whose real memoirs we lately reviewed; and who is here very unjustifiably introduced as a notably dull gentleman, whose conversation is full of scraps of bad Latin. He is, moreover, supposed to be capable of volunteering to proceed to Inverara, for the purpose of making observations on the strength and movements of the Whig commander, the Duke of Argyle; because, being personally intimate with the Duke, and possessing a taste for the romantic and picturesque, these circumstances would account for his visit to the Highlands, and prevent that suspicion which his real motives deserved. — We were about to remind the author that *Cucullus*, not *Cuculla*, is Latin for a hood; and that he would have violated the rules of probability less egregiously, if he had put into the mouth of a principal of Oxford, who was really a learned man, something better than the doggerel quotations with which he has interlarded his discourse: — but this seems to be unnecessary, or hopeless. He also shines in the sentimental;

and

and we cannot refrain from giving those readers, who are enamoured of new and original sentiments, a sample of his talents in that line. They will admire, we doubt not, the deep penetration into the human heart which is displayed in the following passage:

'In a situation of unwonted seclusion and solitude, nothing is more cheering to the soul, than the epistle of a friend whom we love or esteem; every line, every sentence, is perused and re-perused with renewed pleasure; every period is dwelt upon, and the most ordinary composition is relished as if it were a *chef d'œuvre* of the epistolary style: but the communication of a beloved mistress acquires in such a situation an influence altogether magical, and compensates in some degree for the absence of the lovely scribe.'

Jack Steady, says Dr. Johnson in the *Idler*, "was a steady asserter of incontrovertible truths;" and the author of 'The Legend of Argyle,' after this effort, may well assert his claim to that respectable character.

Art. 18. *Bannockburn*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 18s. Boards.
Warren. 1821.

This, also, is intended to be a novel in the Scotch school; and it is a copy so meagre and inartificial, that it may be said to bear the same resemblance to its model as an uncouth image of clay to the colour and animation of nature. The *locality* is in Scotland; and the story, which hinges on an historical event, is slowly and languidly developed through a course of monotonous Scotch dialogue: during which we are introduced to scenery with which we are already perfectly familiar, the hall of the laird, the den of the outlaw, and the cottage of the retainer. The characters might have passed for heroic, but for the injudicious attempt at dramatic effect; and, if they had remained silent, we might have given them credit for lofty sentiments and appropriate language: but they are all, unfortunately, fond of talking, and no sooner open their lips than all their tragic pomp and dignity are swept away by a flood of insipid and even vulgar babble, not unfrequently reminding us of the mock-heroic of Tom Thumb. A young lady is introduced, who is represented as uniting all the witchery of beauty and mirth: but, though we cannot dispute her beauty, those sallies of her vivacity which enchant the hearers appear to us nothing but dullness and flippancy. We have also a Tib Macfairlie, a disgusting exaggeration of that which is nothing new, a masculine woman; — a father who at one time tortures his children with the insensibility of an executioner, and at another dissolves in excesses of romantic tenderness; — and a robber who, with equal consistency, combines the worst practices and the noblest feelings. The whole is seasoned with a due proportion of the marvellous: for the fates of the family depend on a certain black banner, which was delivered to a weird wife by a spectre on a heath, amid wind and darkness; and which seems to have been fraught with as many baneful spells as the caul-

iron, of Macbeth's witches. Yet even this does not rescue the story from what we must consider as a complete failure, and we doubt whether its deficiencies can escape the criticism of the simplest and most uncultivated readers. One praise, however, is due to the character of the work, — it is perfectly inoffensive to religion and morality; and we wish that we could say as much for other publications which possess sometimes every merit but this.

NATURAL HISTORY, BOTANY, &c.

Art. 19. *Outlines of British Entomology*; in Prose and Verse. With Plates. By S. W. Millard. 12mo. pp. 250. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

This pocket-volume is not designed for the profound entomologist, but as an easy and popular manual to those who may be desirous of becoming acquainted with the insects of our own island, for the sake of useful information or for amusement. The author has judiciously avoided, on the one hand, the defects of the Linnæan method of classification, and, on the other, the many unnecessary innovations of Latreille and some of his countrymen. From his own observations, collections, and reading, he has been enabled to present, in an intelligible form, some of the most essential explanations of the technical terms, and a neat synoptical exposition of our *Coleoptera*: but his remarks, which are frequently the result of his personal investigation, in a few instances militate against the sentiments of his fellow-labourers in the same department of natural science. Thus, he combats the received notion of the extensive ravages committed on the granary by the Weevil; and here the truth possibly lies, as it often does, between the conflicting statements. Again, we are told that '*Carabus crepitans*, a small dark blue species with a red thorax, has long been famous for its supposed power of discharging a powder accompanied with a noise, when likely to be attacked by a larger species of this genus. This is a very amusing tale, and I should be glad if it were in my power to attest as a witness its veracity; but notwithstanding it is avouched by almost every writer upon the subject, as I have had sufficient opportunity in the spring of many succeeding years of repeatedly examining the species, and have never been able to witness the effect, I am under the necessity of doubting its correctness. The particular species here specified may possibly be reserved in the use of its fire; but we cannot readily set aside the distinct testimony of the accurate Solander, or the curious observations of Dufour and others on the explosive organs and talents of the family.

As Mr. Millard has magnanimously discarded his former patrons, for their want of due attention to his dedication of a poetical attempt, so we would counsel him to keep aloof also from the nine capricious ladies, who appear to have treated him with much coyness.

Art. 20. *The British Botanist*; or, a Familiar Introduction to the Science of Botany, explaining the Physiology of Vegetation, the Principles both of the Artificial and Natural Systems of Linnæus,

Linnaeus, and the Arrangement of Jussieu; intended chiefly for the Use of Young Persons. 12mo. pp. 268. Livingtons. 1820.

In this short and unpretending treatise, we have one of the most unexceptionable preliminary guides to the study of our indigenous plants that has fallen within the range of our cognizance; for it is perspicuous without prolixity, correct without pedantic formality, and comprehensive without intricacy or irrelevant digression. The author proceeds on a natural and easy plan, from which he never deviates; while the neat coloured plates must greatly contribute to facilitate the conception of his definitions in the mind of the novice. His views of genus and species are obviously the result of rational reflection; and his attempts to assign the etymology of the generic titles, if not uniformly successful, claim at least the merit of novelty, and of good intention. — Altogether, therefore, this publication promises to conduct the young ladies and gentlemen of our island into the temple of Flora, without a greater expenditure of trouble or effort than they often bestow on the most frivolous amusements.

Art. 21. *New Observations on the Natural History of Bees.* By Francis Huber. Third Edition. Illustrated by Five Plates. 12mo. pp. 460. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1821.

A judicious abridgment of the large work in French, which we have already reported at considerable length. See the Appendix to Review, vol. lxxxii. N. S.

POETRY.

Art. 22. *The Last Days of Herculeum; and Abradates and Panthea: Poems* by Edwin Atherstone. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1821.

Here we have a lucubration in the true modern *tear-away* style of blank verse: it is all muscular energy; all thrilling horror. — "Damme! here's a Herculeum for ye!" the author says, or seems to say. Now let our readers judge whether he does not so express himself. We need hardly apprise them that at p. 73. of the poem the earth has *begun* to shake, and the volcano to vomit.

— One in the city brought
His chariot forth, — and madly deem'd the steeds
Would know their master's hand, and bear him far
From this accursed region; — so he leap'd
Swiftly into the seat, while, shrinking back,
Trembling and dropping sweat from every pore,
The horses paused an instant. Then he laugh'd
As though the feat were done, and all secure: —
But when he wish'd to whirl the thong, and seize
The ruling reins, — unhappy wretch! — he found
No reins, no scourge had he; — and down to earth
He would have sprung; — but o'er the cousser's head,
A bulky red rock flew, roaring along.

F f 4

Like

Like cataract, when its tumbled waters boil;
 And heave, and foam in their deep bed below —
 So close it pass'd above — their bristling manes
 Cracked and smoked. As follows on the flash
 The thunder-peal, so sudden sprung the steeds
 On their delicious course. The wheels plough deep; —
 The ashes whirl around as though the car
 Drove on through waters: — heavy is the road,
 But mighty are the horses — and terror
 Has made their nerves like steel. On — on — they urge;
 The rider shrieks — and throws his arms aloft —
 His hair streams in the wind. — No pause, no check,
 The madden'd coursers know: — bounds up and down,
 From side to side, the car: — now on two wheels
 Balanced — it runs; — the others whirl on high; —
 Now they descend — and now again a shock
 Tosses aloft the chariot from the ground; —
 Swift through the air it spins, like Juno's car
 Smooth gliding, noiseless, through the sky, — then lights
 On earth again, rebounding as it falls; —
 But ever on it flies. — The town is left
 Behind their rustling wheels: — the hill is long,
 And steep th' ascent; — but as the rein-deer skim
 The light sledge on the flat and glassy ice,
 So the strong horses through the ashy bed
 And 'gainst the hill whirl on the ponderous car. —
 They reach the level top: — along the ridge
 Straight tow'rd the sea they rush: — Oh! turn aside,
 Ye fury steeds, from your insensate course! —
 The cliffs are high — the ocean foams below: —
 Will not the wide black torrent make you pause? —
 Will not the driving fire shower on your flanks?
 Will not the hailing rocks — the hissing bolts —
 Divert your headlong track? — No! — on — still on —
 Right tow'rd the sea they urge. — A meteor huge
 As the full rounded moon, before their eyes
 Bowls on — and round the beetling cliff shakes out
 Thick corruscations: — yet they turn not back —
 Nor swerve aside. — Oh! will no merciful flash
 Strike the mad horses dead — or ere they plunge
 Down that dire gulf! — As if along the edge
 Of some big cloud the chariot rode through air,
 So high on the black mountain's lofty rim
 It look'd; — thick clouds of deepest dye behind
 Threw out the splendid chariot to the view,
 As though on the black sky it painted were
 In gold and burning sunshine: — the bright brass
 Of the rich harness glittered: — flash'd along
 The viewless spokes: — the carvings rare gleam'd out —
 The white steeds stood like whitest marble forth
 From out a bed of jet: — their manes stream'd up,

From their strong circling necks; — their mouths were foam; —
 Their very eyes were seen to roll, and throw
 Red flames, — such brightness on them shone
 From the unceasing lightnings.

Yet some space
 Between them and the awful steep there lies; —
 Perchance they yet may turn: — the rider sits
 Stiffen'd with terror: — with both hands he grasps
 The car: — his face is deathly pale: — he shrieks
 On — on — the horses fly. But see! a flash
 Plays round the chariot-wheels: — the rider sinks
 Backward upon the seat; — loose rolls his head; —
 His hanging arm swings helpless o'er the side: —
 Thank Heaven! he dies! — but, all unharm'd, the steeds
 Rush on: — that flash has fired the car: — the flames
 Stream in the blast: — it seems day's chariot bright,
 As poets feign, hot blazing through the sky,
 Drawn by the steeds of fire. — On — on — they press: —
 Fast towards the brink they come: — so deep below
 The ocean lies, that on a stilly day
 Its murmurings scarce can climb the dizzy height: —
 They reach the edge — they look not at th' abyss —
 Right o'er they leap: — they sink — and paw the air —
 Down — down they fall: — the chariot flames behind:
 The wheels upon the axles glittering spin: —
 The lifeless driver headlong tumbles out,
 Round and around with twining limbs rolling: —
 Still down they sink — scarce midway in their course: —
 The horses still, as though they spurn'd the earth,
 Throw out their sinewy legs: — another bolt,
 Far streaming through the sky, — flashing blue flames,
 Strikes on them falling; — and the milk-white steeds
 A moment after in the waters dash.
 Lifeless and scorched. — The chariot, hissing, sinks; —
 With sullen plash the dead man strikes the sea: —
 The waves roll over them: — their course is done.

Cui bono, or rather, *cui non malo*, such extravagant stuff as this? Who that remembers the classical description of the death of Hippolytus, where Pity is duly mixed with Terror, can endure the disgusting bombast, the Vauxhall exhibition of fire-works, here obtruded on us? Yet this is called *Genius*, in the 19th century! As we are for ever forced to say, "*Nous avons changé tout cela.*" We seem to mistake every thing for something else; ability for knowledge; genius without taste for genius with it; the love of learning for learning itself; rhythm for metre; and detached fragments and materials of a poem for a finished work. "*Sed quorsum hæc?*" There are three things equally fruitless;

— two to preach to the winds, —

To plough the sands, —

and to teach England in the 19th century, "*the difference between a silk purse and a sow's ear.*"

Art. 43. *The Cottage of Pella, a Tale of Palestine.* (With other Poems.) By John Holland, Author of "Sheffield Park," &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 80. Longman and Co. 1821.

If we say that this is a poor production, we do not mean that it has nothing good in it, for the intentions of the author are excellent, and he seems sincerely pious; but why does he wish to be poetical? We put the question in kindness; and we doubt not that the time will come, when a writer of so much good feeling will acknowledge that we deserve to be ranked among his friends for this unpleasant exercise of candour. Lest we should be required to justify the advice which we have given, we select the opening of the 'Cottage of Pella.'

PART I.

Bernice, a Christian Female, walking in the Neighbourhood of Pella, is accosted by a Jewess who has survived the Destruction of Jerusalem and her own Kindred. — She enquires if [whether] Pella did not escape the Consequences of the War. — Bernice gives an Account of the Apostasy and Flight of her Husband.

Bernice.

"Evening star! now tranquil sleep

Reigns o'er twilight's balmy trance,

I my lonely vigils keep,

While the shadowy hours advance.

"Evening star! whose azure throne

He who spans yon concave built;

Bound in ocean's watery zone,

Are there islands free from guilt?

"Evening star! who canst beguile

E'en this hour of wonted rest,

Are there homes beneath thy smile,

Always happy, always blest?

"Evening star! whose silvery eye

Beams complacent and serene,

Dost thou light beneath the sky

Realms where war hath never been?

"Ah! for war hath crush'd this land —

Land of Canaan, — land of God's

Galilee! thy mournful strand

E'en by fishermen untrod.

"Of Judea's woes, their part

Pella's cottages still feel;

And this bruised and widow'd heart

Time may soothe, but Heaven must heal.

"Israel's daughter, 'midst her woes,

O'er the holy city weeps;

Where Jerusalem proudly rose,

Now Jerusalem lies in heaps!"

Art.

Art. 24. *The Mental Claims of the Sexes, relatively considered, in an Epistle to a Lady: with other Poems, &c.* By George Taylor, of the Bank of England, Author of "The Spirit of the Mountains," &c. &c. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Printed for the Author. 1821.

A question is here discussed which the male portion of the creation have long ago settled to their entire satisfaction. Indeed, it is in vain that the advocate for the equality of sexual talent brings forwards his long list of female worthies, whether in the paths of public life, literature, or science: he is overwhelmed by the solid objection of there being no instance of a female Newton, and the point is considered to be settled. Perhaps the defenders of female ability take up their argument in the wrong place. Where education, habits, manners, and constitutional obstacles, preclude the possibility of an equal degree of *public distinction*, they should not think of discovering the supposed equality of natural power, but should look for it where it is to be found, if any where, in the bosom of *private life*; and then, from the different portion of capacity manifested by brothers and sisters for the attainment of excellence in various studies, they will perhaps come nearer to the establishment of their favorite hypothesis.

We cannot say that Mr. Taylor has enlivened his *Linneæan metaphysics* with any peculiar admixture of wit. On the contrary, his style is as dry as any botanical garden in a hot summer; and the flowers of fancy, which are scattered over it, languish and pine in thirsty want of the genial streams of poetry. We say this unwillingly, for the author is evidently a man of understanding, and of acquirements sufficient to furnish out a better mental entertainment: but he has mistaken his talent, which lies not on the banks of the Castalian stream, but in the *Bank of England*.

‘ But let it pass, *my intent is not to vex,*
I seek alone the glory of your sex;
The real glory, that no stain can soil,
Nor base marauder ever can despoil:
A sex, that beams with beauty on the sight,
And sheds around ineffable delight;
By God to ~~each~~ *each* worn man in pity given,
That makes this darkling earth a step to heaven.

‘ But whither wander I, Myrilla, say!
Digressive thus? — Reclaim me to the lay.
Now, in considering this part of our theme,
Which, after all, perhaps, as dull you’ll deem,
Being too meditative and profound,
As resting chiefly upon learned ground;
But which, in justice, you should not reject,
Because true science claims mankind’s respect;
The body first we’ll take, and next the soul,
And then consider both as one great whole,
Applying, as we journey on the while,
Those systems in a free and artless style,

Drawn from the depths of metaphysical lore,
Which I have introduced to you before.

At pages 145, 146. we have two *Sonnets to Philosophical Necessity*!!

LAW.

Art. 25. *Letter to the Right Honourable John Earl of Eldon, Lord High Chancellor, on the Subject of Forgeries and Bail-Prosecutions, and on the proposed Amelioration of the Criminal Law.* 8vo. pp. 31. Maxwell. 1821.

This pamphlet reprobates with great force the practice which has grown up, of deeming forgery to be a crime to which the royal mercy cannot in any case be extended, as a rule that is unfounded in the laws, inconsistent with the nature of the royal prerogative, and in direct opposition to every principle of reason as well as to the humane spirit of the Christian religion. The author traces the doctrine to the influence of that observation in Dodd's case which he attributes to Lord Thurlow, but which we believe was uttered in council by Lord Mansfield, that "should Dodd be saved, the Perreaus were murdered." Considering the difference of the two cases, certainly a more absurd observation was never made. — With regard to forgeries, the writer observes:

"I am one of those who cannot recognise the right assumed by society to inflict the punishment of death in cases where mere property is concerned. Should I even be guilty of an error in judgment on this head, I totally deny the policy of depriving a man of life in every case of forgery; because, agreeably to observation and experience, the end proposed by such cruel infliction has not been gained, and never will be. It is ascertained, that, in nineteen cases out of twenty, men guilty of the above crime escape the vengeance of the law, as persons are found unwilling to prosecute. Here then we see a system practised, which, so far from acting as a preventive of crime, rather holds out an inducement to commit it. Men will undoubtedly scruple less to engage in dishonest transactions, where the chances of escaping are so greatly in their favour."

"My Lord, illustration by example will do more than a long train of argument, to shew the impropriety of the law in question. A respectable tradesman, near Covent Garden, some years ago, received a (forged) bill of exchange from Mr. —; and as he knew the gentleman's connexions, and believed him incapable of doing wrong, he strained every nerve to oblige him, and managed to discount the bill. When presented for payment, it was discovered to be a fictitious note; and in the first heat of resentment or alarm, the tradesman procured a warrant for Mr. —'s apprehension. A few days after, he was taken, and the party aggrieved bound over to prosecute. On more mature reflection, the prosecutor repented of what he had done: he could not get over certain religious scruples, which pressed heavily on his mind; and his future worldly welfare depended upon receiving payment for the bill; if not,

not, his name would have to appear in the Gazette. Mr. Call succeeded in convincing the tradesman that, should he be set at liberty, he would speedily be able to satisfy the claim on him. But the officers of justice, thirsting after the blood-money, and probably from long habit delighting in human misery, kept the prosecutor in constant terror. One day it was said he must forfeit his recognisances, should he not proceed against the criminal; and the next day he was told, that should he forbear, he would be liable to a prosecution for compounding felony. Thus the Sessions came on; the offender was convicted, and hanged. But mark the consequences: the poor tradesman lost his money; his former customers refused to deal with him, as they supposed him hard-hearted and relentless; and he failed in business. This man, who possessed that within his own breast which St. Paul calls "a law unto himself," a law in unison with the best feelings of the mind, and the unerring voice of conscience and reason, could never forgive himself: he looked upon himself as a foul murderer; and all the logic of cold-blooded money-brokers, and cool-headed lawyers, could not convince him to the contrary. He became insane; calling constantly aloud on the ghost of the murdered, to come and pour oil on his head, and cool the fervency of his distempered brain. He died shortly after, leaving a wife and seven children to deplore his loss, and without the means of subsistence. It may well be asked, on what principle of reasoning can any one shew how society could reap advantage from the hanging of one man, driving another to madness, and consigning his numerous family to the public for support? Would not restitution have been a far preferable mode of satisfaction, than the cruel course pursued?

As to the Bank-prosecutions, 'we observe,' says the author, 'a corporate Society arrogating to themselves the privilege to dictate whether persons, charged with crimes against them, shall, or shall not, be permitted to plead to their indictments; and woe be to him who dare murmur against their determination! What would be said, should the Crown exercise its influence — should a royal duke, or a peer of the land, come into a court of justice, in a manner done by those employed by the Bank, and, in the very face of the judges, make bargains whether men shall be hanged or go for transportation? Can such a system be tolerated for ever? Is it equal justice, that rich merchants may do that with impunity which the highest power in the kingdom would shrink from? After conviction, every subtlety is put in practice to prevent the Crown from exercising its undoubted and most pleasing prerogative — that of extending mercy to criminals, some of whom are not hardened in sin.'

'Let the Bank,' adds the author, — and here we entirely agree with him, and willingly adopt his words because we could not select better — to express our own feelings and judgment on the subject, — 'Let the Bank, if it shall so please the Directors of it, pursue a man to the very door of death, but let them not go one step further, or presumptuously interfere with the royal prerogative.'

time. Let not 'a body of men practise that cruelty which would render an individual odious.' Let not the same method which is the guiding rule when the cases of other capital offenders are taken into consideration by the Secretary of State, be adopted when forgery is the subject. Let not 'a first offence, previous good character, former honourable services, and the improbability of future transgression,' be discarded from consideration as circumstances entirely immaterial in any case in which the life of an offender is in question. Surely circumstances of this nature ought to have their due weight.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *Augustus*; or, the Ambitious Student. 8vo. pp. 356. 9s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

Although this is a sensible book, it is (as the coachmen say) somewhat heavy in hand. The author has evidently reflected a good deal, if he has not seen much; and the fruits of his lucubrations must be praised as generally ripe, though at times verging to staleness. His 'Student' tries public exertion, and politics, and *ambitious* love, in the various pursuits of happiness, and finds it at last in a happy mixture of domestic tenderness, friendship, and learning. The detail of the facts, and the contrast of the characters, are neither entirely new nor entirely old; and we rise from the perusal of the work amended (we hope) in feeling, if not enlarged in understanding. We doubt, however, whether the former advantage can possibly be conferred without the latter;

— "alterius sic
Attenu poscit opem res, et conjurat amica."

There is a calm sort of pleasure, which can be bestowed and employed by those who either as writers or readers have no great pretensions to genius. Just observations on life and human manners will always interest those who have patience to appreciate them; and, besides, in our present feverish and rather flippant style of literary pretensions, it is some relief to repose on greener and cooler spots. If the author of 'Augustus' does not dazzle with epigrammatic point, he does not disgust with empty violence. If he *proses* now and then, (*pace Augusti dixerimus*), he often excites attention; and, on the whole, in the present scarcity of good plain sensible essay-writing, we think that 'the Ambitious Student' holds a respectable place among the graver novelists. At the same time, in justice to ourselves, we must enter our strongest protest against that unintelligible pomposity which disfigures some of his paragraphs;—that waggon-load of words, which overlays the little unhappy squeeking infant of sense, who cannot always find a skilful ventriloquist at hand to unload the mountain above him.

We offer to our readers a passage which will exhibit the degree of power possessed by this author, in the elucidation and contrast of character:

Augustus irreconcilably injured the pride of the ambassador; he had not only at different times reflected on his peculiar views by warm and brilliant illustrations of what were diametrically opposite to them, but he had, in the unguarded sallies of generous feeling, in profound security, expressed too frequently, too decidedly, his contempt for all that mystery and pomp of manner for which the ambassador had often been rebuked; he had, therefore, naturally approached very nearly to the principles of the very man whom he imagined to be entertained by his freedom, — of a man always on the watch for elucidation of character by opinion, and ever ready, with the crooked policy of perpetual suspicion, to apply to himself what talkativeness and indiscretion might unintentionally suffer to escape from his companions. The labour of the ambassador's life had been to promote a reputation for a range of character which fell far below the desire of Augustus. Every indirect attack upon this limited perfection was the highest affront which could be offered to him. The utmost malice of his enemies he had always despised, because it tended only to oppose his plans, and to degrade him from his predominant influence; but, as the first principle of happiness is usually a calm confidence in an inward and sufficient dignity, in some characters this reliance, when but slightly attacked, withers at once every joy and consolation. The soldier may eagerly aim at an acknowledged eminence of professional reputation: secure in that he can look down with indifference upon moral consistency, upon the due government of an individual and private life so apparently lost amidst the blaze of a great reputation. The lover of intellectual strength, if happily seated upon the greatest elevation of popular applause, will often be contented with the seat of pre-eminence, without regarding the obvious duty of rendering his strength instrumental entirely to the good of others: such was the defective pride of the ambassador. As long as he was reputed to be the best statesman in his native country, he enjoyed what he had always aimed to acquire. The numerous enemies who had constantly attended him, however strongly they opposed him, had ever forbore to reflect upon his abilities. They had censured his extensive views as too important when compared to the known resources of his country; but they had often gratified him by open confessions of respect for his diplomatic talents, and unceasing activity of mind. This solacing fabric of opinion — this undisturbed resource, to which he had naturally retreated from petty cavils and vexations, the conversation of Augustus was particularly adapted to irritate. He had overlooked many circumstances which had momentarily embarrassed him; but when opposition appeared in a more touching and direct form, all these remembered circumstances contributed to excite his passion, to excite that ruling passion, whose enmity is necessarily durable.

We think that this quotation will manifest the correctness of our remarks.

Art.

Art. 27. *The Excursions of a Spirit; with a Survey of the Planetary World, a Vision.* With Four Illustrative Plates. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1821.

While this volume is written to inculcate the necessity of serious views of life and religious habits, it displays considerable ingenuity. As far as we can judge from internal evidence, we should be inclined to ascribe it to the author of "*The World without Souls*," and "*of the Velvet Cushion*;" since it discloses the same sentiments, is composed with the same degree and sort of fancy, and displays the same fluency of style. — A spirit disengaged from its mortal coil is initiated in the secrets of the successive stages of beatitude; a parent-spirit being the grand mystagogue, and reciting to the aspirant the wonders of the happy planets. — A strange *mélange* of earthly and unearthly matters is indeed laid before the reader; and the geography of the earth and the revolutions of satellites are mixed up with discussions on the nature of musical pleasure, the sympathy between departed spirits and surviving relatives, and the modes of travelling among the blessed. In the midst of all this, the story of Hænestus is introduced; a well written tale, accomplishing in a forcible manner the consolations which religious principles afford under the most poignant affliction.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are favored with the letter of M. Maurois, in acknowledgment of our account of his *Guide to the French Language*, (Number for October,) and discussing a few of our remarks. He will excuse us from again entering on these points of argument, which in some cases are little more than points of taste: but we will just state that he assents to our recommendation of writing *Anglais*, *Français*, &c. according (as he says) to the usage of Voltaire, in order to accommodate the words to the pronunciation, which in the syllable *ois* formerly corresponded to the orthography, the vowels being sounded as in *bais*, *lois*, &c.

It is curious that, at this time of day, we should be asked questions about the *Memoirs of John Bunce*, which, above three-score years ago, were much celebrated and generally read. Yet the letter signed *β.*, dated from Yorkshire, and avowedly written by a very young man, inquires of us whether *Bunce* was a real or a fictitious name, and requests to know whether and where the book was reviewed in the *M. R.* — In reply, we may refer Mr. *β.* to our xvth vol. pp. 497. and 585., and xxxvth vol. pp. 33. and 100., where he will find an ample report of the *Memoirs* in question, and an answer to his interrogatory as to the name *Bunce*. — This young correspondent ought perhaps to be reminded that, in sending his letter, he should not have taxed our purse as well as our time and mind. — The Appendix to this Volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of February, with the Number for January.

THE APPENDIX

TO THE
NINETY-SIXTH VOLUME

OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Histoire des Trois Démembrements de la Pologne, &c.*; i. e. A History of the Three Dismemberments of Poland, intended as a Continuation of the History of the Anarchy of Poland by *Rulhiere*. By the Author of the Spirit of History, and of the Theory of Revolutions. 8vo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 11s. 6d.

THE *Anecdotes of the Russian Revolution of 1762, and the Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg*, by *M. de Rulhiere*, revealed the most secret springs of the policy of the Empress Catherine; and this interesting writer had commenced a *History of the Anarchy of Poland*, which he carried on as far as the year 1769, and for the continuation of which he had collected interesting documents embracing the period between 1770 and 1775, when his decease interrupted the task. This event is the more to be lamented, because he was well qualified for the undertaking not merely by his natural penetration and his entire sincerity, but by his having been employed in the transactions themselves as an agent of the French government.

The volumes before us are intended as a sequel to the portion that was published of *Rulhiere's History*, and are probably drawn up by the very person who succeeded to him in his secret official capacity. At any rate, both writers evince a sagacity in the detection of motives and characters, which an

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G. g.

ordinary

ordinary historian and bystander seldom acquires; while they betray a profound intimacy with the pursuits and purposes of individuals, which seems to attest the application of corrupt means of intelligence. Contemporary annals are seldom written with so much frankness, and living individuals are seldom exhibited with such flaying denudation, as in these works. A certain colouring, indeed, favourable to the views of the French court; and to the parties which co-operated with it, may occasionally tinge the impartiality of the narrative: but, on the whole, the interests of justice, of liberty, and of independence, are advocated; and the authors, like Tacitus, seldom apply their searing brands except against the enemies of their country and of mankind.

'The notions,' says the present writer in his preface, 'which *Rulhiere* had collected in different courts, in the depository of the office for foreign affairs, and in the various journeys which he had undertaken for the purpose of examining, comparing, and acquiring intelligence, diffuses a powerful interest over his history, which often comprehends that of the principal cabinets of Europe. Indeed, the fate of Poland interested all Europe; and its ruin, or even its decay, could not fail to produce great changes in the system of political relations. *Rulhiere* was justly struck with the importance of these changes: but he could not anticipate that entire overthrow of the ancient order of policy, which resulted from the French Revolution of 1792. When the Tamerlane of our times darted from Madrid to Moscow, and wanted to impose laws on the coasts of the Baltic after having dictated them to those of the Mediterranean, nobody could foretell on what new bases the tranquillity of Europe would one day repose. Poland, which formerly appeared a mass, now became only a point; and yet it seemed placed by nature to become the barrier of Europe against the barbarians of the north. This change alters the point of view in which the affairs of Poland were to be regarded then, and are to be regarded now.

Rulhiere could permit himself to indulge more in antiquarianism, in digression, and in precedent, than it would now seem requisite to adduce. Accordingly, those of his papers, which have been intrusted to my care, have undergone an abridgment proportioned to that diminished interest in technical formalities which it is hopeless to revive. His notices are very numerous, and to them I am indebted for particulars of his interviews with Prince Henry of Prussia, with Count Kniphausen, and other distinguished personages; as also for various communications respecting the conference of Teschen. All my examination of his papers convinces me of his strict love of truth, and of the scrupulous exactness of his documents: though perhaps his prejudices against the Russian interests occasionally pass the bounds of impartiality.

In the latter part of my history, which relates to the dismemberment of 1773, I have been able to derive little assistance from the papers of *Rulhiere*; which are defective, or are in hands unknown to me, or are not wholly and systematically preserved, respecting this period. I have therefore, from personal research, and from peculiar sources of intelligence, endeavoured to supply the basis of narrative where his preliminary collections fail me!

The author proceeds to detail the nature of these sources, and appeals to his two former works, *The Spirit of History*, and *The Theory of Revolutions*, in proof of adequate qualifications for his undertaking. We think that his readers will not be disappointed by his performance: where his matter has been epitomized from the writings of another, it has been well connected with the original part of the new narrative; the whole has acquired integrity of form and justness of proportion; the style is luminous without being dazzling; and the detail is as interesting as the reflections are instructive.

Fourteen books comprize the entire history; of which four, preceded by an introduction, are contained in the first volume. Book i. opens with the interview at Neiss between the Emperor Joseph II. and the King of Prussia, to the result of whose private conference the first idea of partitioning Poland is ascribed; although at that time the two princes only agreed to concur in calling on Russia to evacuate the Polish provinces then occupied by her armies. Prince Henry of Prussia is stated to have first suggested the partition. — Book ii. gives many particulars of the internal parties of Poland, and especially of the confederates of Barr; who were afterward to assume a patriotic attitude, and to throw difficulties in the way of the dismemberment of the country. — The third notices the interference of the European powers, and the mission of *Dumouriez* into Poland by France; to whom, probably, is to be ascribed the bold project of seizing the king's person, in order to compel a constitutional assertion of the independence and integrity of Poland.

We extract, as an ample specimen of the narrative, the relation of this undertaking:

Thirty-one of the most robust and determined men were chosen by the two chieftains, *Strawinski* and *Lukaski*, and led by them into a house near Zakroczym. They entered two and two, and took an bath of which *Lukaski* read the formula. It was then revealed to them that *Pulawski* had chosen them to carry off the King, and that the safety of the country depended on the success of the enterprize. All appeared, and in fact were, animated by the same zeal: the best horses of the detachment were made ready, and they returned to Warsaw. — *Strawinski*, whose enthusiasm did not prevent him from attending to the minutest details, had

taken two previous precautions, which were likely to be useful. First, In order to accustom the Russians to see him arrive with troops, he had often escorted to Warsaw convoys of supplies which the gentlemen sent from their estates: under this pretext, he went and came on horseback well attended, well armed, and knew the Russian guards. Secondly, To check the progress of the plague, a ditch had been made at some distance round Warsaw, which embraced a circuit of six or seven leagues, and was guarded by little redoubts half a league from each other. *Strawinski*, wanting to survey the passages of the ditch, and to visit them quietly without exciting suspicion, went to the commander of the Russian guard; told him that a servant had stolen several of his horses, and that, having searched Warsaw in vain, he was sure the fellow had passed the dyke; that the traces must be fresh, and that he could judge by them on what road to pursue him. This feint succeeded so well, that the commander gave him a Russian serjeant to make the tour of the dyke; and under this protection he examined every place over which a horse could pass, as also those which were easiest of access. During this process, he fixed on the spot through which the King was to be carried off.

‘ Every thing being thus far prepared, the two chiefs purchased in the villages ten waggons: placed in them their arms, saddles, and accoutrements, which they covered with hay, oats, straw, and other forage; and then conveyed the waggons into the forest. There they passed the night, dressed their people as peasants or watermen, and in the morning of the 2d November set off for Warsaw, preceded by three horsemen mounted on steeds too swift and fiery for harness. They were to call themselves servants of *Strawinski*, and to inform the Russian guards that he was coming in the evening with a convoy. Their journey was performed without accident: the convoy passed with a small number of the conspirators; the rest arrived at different hours and by different roads; and their re-union took place in a stable of the convent of Dominicans, where *Strawinski* was accustomed to lodge when he brought in a convoy of provisions. There they all kept close during the 3d of November, except the two chieftains, and two other conspirators.

‘ *Pulawski* executed with equal success the steps on his part which were to favour the enterprize. He had procured from the authorities an order to approach Nadarzyn, and even Warsaw, under the pretext of recalling on this side *Brancki* and *Suwarrof*, whose forces were near Cracow. *Zaremba*, who was not in the confidence of the conspirators, had brought this order to *Pulawski*, and had himself received one to advance as far as Rava in support of him. Conformably to these dispositions, *Pulawski* had appeared in different stations near Warsaw. Fifteen hundred men were dispatched to dislodge him; others were marched still farther; and, on the 3d of November, not two hundred Russians remained in the capital. After having harassed them for three days, he drew them off toward Radom, and was obliged to retreat before them, briskly pursued by some Cossacks; and he owed his safety merely
to

to the strength and activity of his horse, which leapt a ditch that they could not pass. He had detached in advance one hundred and fifty cavalry along the road which the King was to take, with orders to keep their horses fresh, to support the troop which was to join them from Warsaw, and, if necessary, to escort it as far as Czenstokow. He had already taken the precaution also to prepare this citadel for a long resistance, by furnishing it with provisions and ammunition.

‘ It has been observed that *Strawinski* had many acquaintances at the palace; and, having gone thither on the third, he inquired whether the King was to go that evening to the play. He was answered unsuspectingly that the King would not go because he intended to pay a charitable visit to his uncle the chancellor, who was confined by illness. *Strawinski* stayed until the carriages came up, and when he saw them ran to collect his people and get them formed, placing some at the end of the street, as well to keep watch as to obstruct the entrance. Scarcely were they stationed when a Russian officer, passing near them, stopped, eyed them with curiosity, and said at first, *These are Russians*; then, correcting himself, *No; they are confederates*. At these words, a cloak was flung over his head, which was tied down round the waist; and thus several others were muffled and arrested, who might have given the alarm. They were then confined in a vaulted passage which had been secured for that purpose, and not liberated until after the event.

‘ In the mean time, *Strawinski* had arranged the rest of the conspirators. He made them occupy the streets of *Capitulna* and *Mydowa*; repeating the order to act with the greatest celerity, and to use their fire-arms only in case of absolute necessity: but never to fire on the carriage, and in no way to injure the person of the King. He also advised them to talk Russian, in order not to be known. All these dispositions took place between eight and nine o’clock in the evening; and nothing had happened to disturb them when, at half-past nine, the King quitted the chancellor’s house to go and sup with the Princess *Adam Czartoryski*.

‘ Before the carriage rode two horsemen, carrying torches; and beside it were six others, with two gentlemen at their head. At each door of the carriage, a page stood on the footstep, and behind it were two heidukes and two footmen. The King had with him in the coach his adjutant-general, and a young kinsman. *Strawinski*, aware of all this, separated his troop into three divisions, and prepared himself to arrest the foremost of the party. *Kusma*, who was also called *Kosinski*, undertook the seizure of the King’s person: while *Lukaski* and the others were to manage those behind the carriage, and to become a van-guard on the road. All the persons who preceded the carriage were dexterously separated from it by *Strawinski*’s people, who were mistaken for a Russian patrol; because they affected to talk Russ as they crossed the party, when one of the King’s squires desired them to halt till his Majesty had passed. The second troop, which was at the end of the street, now came up, and presently the third; the

carriage was surrounded, the horses were stopped, and the driver, who would not stop, was shot. The night was dark, the confusion great, and the conspirators, who were bursting open the doors of the carriage, fired on those who resisted. One of the heidukes was killed by two pistol-balls, and one by a sabre-cut. Another attendant was dismounted; several horses were wounded and taken, and one of the pages was trampled down. The King was desired to get out, having himself opened one door, while his adjutant opened the other, hoping to escape by favour of the darkness. The cowardice of the adjutant, who was found hidden beneath the carriage, had nearly saved the King, for whom he was during many minutes mistaken; until some person flashed the priming of a pistol in his face, and discovered the error. While this uncertainty lasted, the King was escaping on foot, passed the rear-guard, being supposed to be one of the attendants, and thus got back to the house of his uncle the lord chancellor. The door had been fastened, and the King knocked violently; which drew the attention of the conspirators who were searching about for him. *Lubaski* then recognized and seized him; when *Strawinski* came up and said, "Make no resistance; there is a carriage ready; you must come with us." Some man, perhaps drunk, gave the King a blow with the flat of his sabre, notwithstanding the formal prohibition that had been issued; and *Kosinski*, in order to be sure that no mistake was made, flashed the priming of a pistol in his face. As soon as they were certain that it was the King, they put him on horseback, *Kosinski* and ten men conducting him: *Lubaski*, with ten others, formed the van-guard; and the ditch was passed at the place chosen by *Strawinski* when he reconnoitred it. The King attempted to slacken his pace, and to stop, in the hope of obtaining help; but, on these occasions, more blows with the flat of the sabre were administered. *Strawinski*, who had the care of the rear-guard, waited a considerable time at the place where they had passed the dyke, in order to prevent any pursuit; and, finding that every thing remained calm, he proceeded on his route, quite convinced that the affair was terminated, and that in the course of the 4th of November his royal prisoner would be lodged in the fortress at Czenstokow. In fact, he had reason to congratulate himself on his success: his foresight had omitted nothing; and no accident had interrupted the execution of his purpose.

The continuing calm, which surprized *Strawinski*, requires some explanation, before we pass on to the sudden change which awaited the fortunes of the King. The persons in his suite had given the alarm at the palace, and the guard had marched to the place of attack; but in the struggle all the King's followers had been dispersed, except those who lay bleeding on the spot. Here the King's hat and the bag attached to his hair were found, and the inference drawn was that he had been assassinated. Every body was at a loss what to do, and orders were wanting, which no one chose to give.

When the news reached the chancellor, he contented himself with saying, "Let the gates of my mansion be fastened," and sat down to supper with his usual party, not expressing even any emotion. The grand chamberlain asked *Weymar* to send troops in pursuit of the King, when he answered, "I will, if you choose, but that may endanger his life." — One of *Salder's* footmen, coming in a great hurry to announce the seizure of the King's person, his master reprimanded him and said, "I am busy now." Probably he would not have been sorry for the King's death, which would have delivered Catherine from the embarrassment of having to maintain him on the throne, and have placed every thing more conveniently.

Meanwhile, the uneasiness spread in Warsaw; and the uncertainty and contradiction of the circulating reports shifted alternate suspicions on all parties. A general revolt was apprehended, which might have had the most important consequences. The soldiers of the crown had no ammunition in their cartouch-boxes, and all that was on hand was found to be spoiled. Perils threatened on every side. The few people, who thought about the King, seemed agreed that there was more danger in pursuing than in not pursuing him. By delay, the conspirators would have time to do all things in order, and if they intended to spare the King would preserve him: but the pressure of an attack, and the apprehension of a rescue, might determine them to a fatal resolution. Still, various preparations were going on; and the King's pelisse being found bloody near the place at which the dyke had been passed, the road taken was thus indicated. The King had in fact lost his pelisse in leaping the ditch, and had lamed his horse: one of his own shoes, also, had stuck in the mire. He therefore asked for boots; and while they were providing, as also another horse, and another mantle, *Lukaski* and his van-guard were greatly in advance. *Kasinski*, when aware of this separation, became troubled; and, though a man of tried courage, he had not that presence of mind which decides for itself confidently in difficulty; nor did he know which way to turn. He had only seven of the conspirators with him. He might have sent after *Lukaski* to call him back, or have waited for *Strawinski*, who was behind: but, as the rendezvous was to be at *Bielany*, a mile and half from the Warsaw road, at the house of a gentleman who was to furnish a carriage, he intended to proceed thither. Instead of taking the right way, however, he got into a bog, where the horses stuck fast at every step. He sent two of his people forwards to ascertain the track, but they knew no better than the rest what direction to chuse.

The King, perceiving or feigning to perceive symptoms of a village, said to them: "Do not go yonder; there are Russians." Whether this was true, and he was apprehensive of being killed in case of any rencontre, or whether he had rather wander in woods and bogs than be set right by the villagers, we cannot say: but the King, in relating this adventure afterward, observed that these words appeared greatly to soften his guard, by persuading them that he was not anxious to escape. He then made use of this

opportunity to add, "If you wish to carry me off alive, do not torment me, but allow some minutes of rest."

The other conspirators, seeing that *Lukaski* did not come near them, sought him in the dark among the woods, concluding that he must be drawing near the rendezvous: but the precaution of talking Russ, which had been so useful at Warsaw, now multiplied their errors, for they mistook each other for Russian troops; and at the first hail retired mutually, not having agreed on any private watch-word. The confusion of *Kosinski* added to the embarrassment: those who accompanied him, not knowing what to do with the King, proposed to kill him: but this he firmly opposed; remembering his promise to bring the monarch alive. At this moment, a real Russian party drew nigh; when two of the conspirators made off, two more soon followed, and *Kosinski* was left alone with the King.

His Majesty, who now began to conceive some hopes, slackened his pace, when *Kosinski* threatened with his sabre, and said that a carriage would be ready at the outskirts of the wood. Thus they proceeded to the convent of Bielany; having, after so many hours of journeying to and fro, advanced no more than a league from Warsaw. The King employed all his eloquence to seduce *Kosinski*, who parleyed, and dwelt on the oath which he had taken; but his Majesty, who endeavoured to demonstrate its nullity, was a fine talker, loved to argue, and was persuaded that nobody could resist the charms of his eloquence. He therefore gave to this natural talent all the impressiveness which the occasion required; and *Kosinski*, who began to be the King's prisoner from the moment when he first listened, was completely subdued when they came to Mariemont. There the King sat down; and *Kosinski* threw himself on his knees before him, asked his pardon, and cast himself on his clemency for safety. The King pledged his word that no harm should come to him. A little way off was a mill, and *Kosinski* there asked an asylum for a gentleman who had been robbed. As soon as they were admitted, the King wrote the following note to the commander of his guards. "I am delivered by miracle from the murderers: come quickly with forty men to the mill at Mariemont to escort me back. I am wounded, but not dangerously." It was four o'clock in the morning when this letter reached its destination. The unexpected news of the King's return spread instantaneously: — but it appeared so improbable that it was mostly supposed to be a report circulated by the conspirators to gain time, and to prevent pursuit. However, the people collected in the street through which the King was to arrive, and almost every one carried a torch. At five, the King arrived in the carriage of the captain of his guard, attended by a large escort. Perhaps as much curiosity as interest was excited; but that emotion, that sympathy, that joy, which the unexpected deliverance of a man from a great danger naturally excites, electrified the whole crowd; and Stanislaus Augustus, who would only have been named with contempt had he remained a prisoner, and with indifference had he been killed, was saluted with the warmest

warmest acclamations of "Long live the King!" This extraordinary deliverance invested his person with something supernatural, which was more than majesty.

In the midst of the lords and ladies who had collected at the castle, the monarch alighted from the carriage with his hair loose, his face bloody, his garments dirty, and replying by thanks to the real or feigned congratulations of all the persons present. The spectacle, illuminated by innumerable torches, had a theatrical or magical effect, which Stanislaus Augustus seemed to delight in prolonging. — Farther off was seen *Kosinski*, surrounded by his interrogators, but deaf or insensible to all that was passing; his dark eye turned on no one; and his churlish silence, his attitude of consternation, left a doubt whether he repented of having carried off or of having brought back the King. — Pressed by questions, he only answered, "This has been the most horrible day of my life."

The King now withdrew into his apartments; and on the next day received the formal congratulations of the nobility, the clergy, and the citizens. Full of the idea that nobody could resist his eloquence, he said on this occasion, "If I had been taken on the *Czebstokow*, I should have harangued the confederates, and it would have been a splendid passage in my life." This expression at least proves, that he was inwardly convinced that his life was not meant to be endangered.

We left *Strawinski* crossing the dyke, after having waited a considerable time to observe whether he was pursued. He arrived at the rendezvous, where he found *Lukaski*, and both were alike surprized at not beholding the King. They sent scouts into the woods, and went themselves to explore. Having entered for purposes of inquiry the house of a peasant, a hundred Cossacks came up, from whom they had no chance of escape but by great boldness. *Strawinski* shot the captain with his musket, and rode through them, wounding and unhorsing several who were in his way. *Lukaski*, less fortunate, was shot in several places, wounded with sabres, struck from his horse, stripped, and left for dead on the spot. *Strawinski*, after the departure of the Cossacks, came back to seek his comrade, found him in this piteous condition with some remains of life, and took him on his horse to a surgeon, who succeeded in restoring him. He then rejoined the other conspirators, and learnt the history of the affair; but he could never forgive himself for having let slip, through the fault of one of his own agents, the opportunity of completing an enterprise so well concerted, so bravely executed, and the success of which appeared so infallible.

The fourth book is chiefly occupied with incidents of the Turkish war, not very relevant to the proper purpose of this history.

Volume II. opens with the fifth book, in which the surprise of *Gracow* by the French officers is narrated, and the farther

proceedings of the confederates. The senate was convoked by the King, and a short glimpse of energy was displayed. The criminal process against those who carried off the King is related, with the decapitation of *Lukaski* and others. — Book vi. is much occupied with the Turkish war, and the seventh and eighth with the interior affairs of Poland.

Volume III. is divided into six books, which conduct the narrative to the final abdication of Stanislaus Augustus; and a recapitulation closes the work. Justificatory documents and copies of state-papers are attached in smaller type to each book. — The topic has importance and unity, and is treated in a courageous and striking manner.

ART. II. *Voyage en Ecosse, &c.; i. e. Travels in Scotland and the Hebrides*. By L. A. NECKER DE SAUSSURE, Honorary Professor of Mineralogy and Geology in the Academy of Geneva, Honorary Member of the Geological Society of London, and of the Wernerian Society of Edinburgh, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Geneva and Paris. 1821. Imported by Truettel and Co, Price 17. 11s. 6d. sewed.

SEVERAL of our continental neighbours, prompted by a laudable curiosity, have within a few years past travelled in Great Britain, and some of them have published the result of their excursions: but the majority of the population of France, and of most of the countries of Europe, still entertain very imperfect and inadequate notions of the extent, climate, and resources, of that portion of our island which is distinguished by the name of *Scotland*. To all such persons, especially those who indulge in the pursuits of science, we would strenuously recommend a dispassionate perusal of the volumes before us; for they are penned by an accomplished traveller, who resided two winters in the capital of the country which he has undertaken to describe; who has traversed its provinces and islands in various directions; and who has applied his enlightened mind to ascertain facts, and to delineate objects as they really occurred to his perceptions. It may be regretted that this learned professor, who promises to sustain the honours of the illustrious names of *Necker* and *De Saussure*, did not sooner favour the public with an account of his northern peregrinations, which were performed in 1806, 1807, and 1808; but his statements have suffered little material injury by the delay, because they refer principally to topics of a more permanent complexion than the varying opinions and fashions of the day; his objects being particularly the geology of the country, the character and usages of its mountaineers, and the simple but affecting

affecting history of their political destinies. The author has, moreover, been enabled in the interval to explore other extensive fields of geological research, to institute comparisons, to widen the bases of his inductions, and to consult the congenial works of Dr. Macculloch and Dr. Boué, which afford powerful aids to all who are desirous of studying the rock-formations of the northern parts of our island. *

As, however, these last-named gentlemen have so ably anticipated the present writer, and as much even of the more popular information conveyed by M. DE SAUSSURE has been already rendered familiar to many of our British readers through the medium of the press, conversation, or personal travel, we are induced to report the contents of the Professor's journals and dissertations in a much more cursory manner than the quantity and excellence of the materials might otherwise seem to require. We trust, too, that the days have forever passed in which well-fed citizens of our metropolis believed Scotland to be a town or a part of Yorkshire, or a blighted heath, or a land consigned to hyperborean frost, and uniformly impressed with the features of poverty and famine.

M. DE SAUSSURE's description of the capital of Scotland, though generally correct and impartial, presents us with little that had not been exhibited by former tourists; but it brings together their scattered remarks, expressed and arranged in the author's own manner; and the account may very possibly have emanated more from his opportunities of personal observation than from the more ordinary process of compiling. He was much struck with the female amusement of shopping in the morning; and from this practice having no equivalent word in the French language, we may infer that the continental ladies, with all their attachment to dress and parade, are less addicted to this systematic lounging among haberdashers, milliners, and jewellers. — His sketch of the literary institutions and resources of the *Intellectual City* is considerably extended, and in most respects very accurate, although occasionally open to minute criticism. The masters of the High School are salaried, we presume, by the corporation, and not by government: but their emolument is principally derived from the fees of their pupils. — The learned journalist is inclined to lay too much stress on the Latin *Thesis*, published by candidates for medical degrees at the

* We gave an ample report of Dr. Macculloch's *Description of the Western Islands* in our Numbers for August, September, and October, 1820; and M. Boué's *Geological Essay on Scotland* was introduced in our Appendix to vol. xciii.

University; since, with some few exceptions, this specimen of the student's professional attainments is wholly composed by a *grinder*, who also sharpens the wits of the candidate for undergoing his Latin examinations;—and the practice of defending the impugned thesis, according to the scholastic rules of syllogism, has nearly degenerated into an empty formality. In the present state of literary society, indeed, it might perhaps be more advisable to have both the public and the private examinations conducted in the vernacular tongue.—It is true that Professor Jameson delivers a course of lectures in summer: but natural history is not taught *exclusively* at that period: on the contrary, the more enlarged course is conducted during the winter-season.—The following deliberate assertion of a grave Professor of *Geneva* may now excite a smile: ‘None but Scotchmen destined to the church can study theology; for the doctrine taught is Calvinism, which is scarcely professed any where in Great Britain, except in Scotland.’ What will many members of our Established Church, and entire masses of methodistical Dissenters, say to this statement?—In the University of Edinburgh, there is a *chair* for Public Law, and a Professor is regularly appointed, with a salary: but we have been assured that no lectures in this department are given. Neither are the private lecturers in this city *authorized by the University*; although their exertions are, on the whole, more beneficial than injurious to the established teachers.

Without being conscious that we are the dupes of local prepossessions, or of southern vanity, we cannot refrain from suspecting that the present author's comparative estimate of the Scotch and the English character inclines more in favour of the former than truth will altogether justify. It may be that many of our northern neighbours are less shy and reserved with foreigners than we too often are: but, among ourselves, we certainly do not yield to the Caledonians in sociableness and affability; nor do we generally pay more homage to rank, fortune, or power, than is rendered on the other side of the Tweed, where neither family-pride nor purse-pride is by any means extinct.—The statement that in Scotland the French language ‘is learnt, and spoken with ease, by all who have received the slightest degree of education,’ will not, we apprehend, be borne out by fact. With these deductions, however, we have reason to believe that the portrait of the Scots, exhibited in the present pages, will be found sufficiently correct;—at all events, no *unfavourable* likeness.

The

The Professor's philosophical musings on the Calton-hill, on a fine Sunday evening, were invaded by the novelty of a spectacle not altogether in harmony with his feelings.

'I saw at a distance,' says he, 'on the turf, a great crowd of men, women, and children, some standing, others confusedly seated, and all intent on the same object. In the throng, I soon perceived a man who occupied a more elevated station than the others, and who seemed to attract to himself the looks of the multitude. I approached, and beheld this man mounted on a table, haranguing his auditors like a quack at a fair, and speaking in a tone of great animation, while the most profound silence reigned in his congregation. What was my astonishment when I discovered that the orator, whose voice, gesture, garb, and whole appearance, seemed to bespeak a juggler, was an itinerant Methodist, instructing in the doctrines of his sect the passengers and the loungers whom the fineness of the evening had invited to the Calton-hill!

'Dressed in the most vulgar style, bawling with the voice of Stentor, and gesticulating like Punch, this extraordinary preacher could not infuse much devotion into the moving crowd; who, with their heads covered, stopped for a moment to listen to his sermon; and most of whom retired more indignant than edified, by seeing the sacred name of Religion thus profaned, and the dignified station of a minister of the Gospel assimilated to the vocation of a Merry-andrew. It is still more surprizing to find such an exhibition permitted by the magistrates of a city and a country that profess, even in the most trivial details, a purity and an austerity which are occasionally pushed to extremes. I am aware that the British constitution tolerates the free exercise of every mode of Christian worship: but, in a case like the present, bounds should be set to such indulgence; and the first mechanic, who happens to fancy himself inspired, should not be allowed to stand up in a public place, and preach a system as erroneous in its dogmas as it is dangerous in its consequences:—a system in which the Deity is represented as a pitiless and merciless judge, and in which the most dreadful punishments of hell are denounced, with extreme vehemence, against all those who embrace not the creed of the Methodists. Such glowing descriptions, which form the ceaseless theme of these market-place preachers, have produced derangement in many weak and superstitious minds.'

In the author's glance at the geology of both banks of the Forth, from Borrowston-ness to St. Abb's Head on the south, and from North Queensferry to the neighbourhood of Ely on the north, we see marks of a hasty and superficial examination: but it may prompt some of the scientific residents of Edinburgh to survey the same lines of coast more at leisure, and with greater minuteness of detail. The graceful and delicate basaltic columns near Kincaig Point, the trapp-conglomerate, the caverns, and the alleged *Ely garnets*, are well

well deserving of particular investigation; though generally overlooked by travellers because they are out of the track of the public road. The detached mass of sand-stone, also, involved in the trapp-rocks between Burnt-island and Kinghorn, and various other particulars, might have furnished this observant tourist with some interesting notices, had it suited his convenience to prolong his visit to Fife; while a more deliberate progress along the shores of the Forth might have enabled him to avoid some little slips and inaccuracies, to which, however, he is less addicted than most foreign writers who profess to portray British scenery and manners. As instances of carelessness, or hurry, we may note that the petty village of *Cramond* is exalted into a town; that *Inverkeithing* is written *Inverkeithen*; that General Wemyss's estate is confounded with that of the Earl of Wemyss; that *Leven*, instead of *Largo*, is stated to have given birth to Alexander Selkirk; that *Kinross* is uniformly called *Kintaid*; and that *Kittiwakes* is incorrectly transformed into *Kutgehefs*.

As, in the geological circles of Edinburgh, the *debatable* rocks of Fassnet-burn are still held in glowing remembrance, the decision of a neutral judge with respect to their nature and constitution may be intitled to some consideration, and we therefore quote the statement of the Geneva Professor:

Arrived on the banks of the small stream of Fassnet, which traverses the bottom of the valley, in the middle of the grauwaacké-hills of Lammer-muir, we found some beds of a granitic rock between the layers of grauwaacké. This rock, however, is not a genuine granite, for it contains more than three elements. Neither is it, as some mineralogists assure us, a syenitic greenstone; nor a true syenite, unless an undefined extension be given to that term: but I shall prefer the expression *syenitic granite of transition*, because in its composition it resembles a granite more than a syenite. With respect to its position, it is there found in strata subordinate to the grauwaacké; and these strata, though of inconsiderable thickness, are very extensive. The colour of the rock varies, like its composition. I have found specimens of which the prevailing tint is red-brown, spotted with black; and which, when closely examined, are observed to contain much reddish felspar, glistening with quartz of the same colour, spangles of black mica, and some very minute and thinly scattered grains of black hornblend. It gives out the argillaceous odour by insufflation. The general colour of the other variety is grey, spotted with black. It is composed, first, of white shining felspar, in nearly equal proportion with a black hornblend, disposed in grains and in crystals, with brilliant faces; and, secondly, of a little white quartz, and a very small quantity of black mica. It likewise yields the argillaceous odour by insufflation.

W.

We are disposed to place reliance on these distinct statements, because the author is habituated to examine the composition of rocks with the magnifying glass and the microscope, and because he seems to be unwarpèd by any pre-conceived theory.

Having staid only a few hours at Glasgow, on his way to Arran, M. DE SAUSSURE's notices of that populous and commercial city are very brief, and stand in need of correction. To the names of Simson and Reid should have been added those of Hutcheson, Smith, and Miller. The number of students attending the University, when our traveller peeped within its gates, must have amounted to upwards of a thousand, instead of four hundred: only those who engage in the stated academical *curriculum* are distinguished by an appropriate costume; the constitution and usages of the seminary considerably differ from those of Oxford and Cambridge; and, instead of being *confined as prisoners within the gloomy walls of the College*, all the students lodge in the town: so that the worthy Professor may reserve his commiseration and that of his readers for more unfortunate objects. The Hunterian Museum is despatched in two words as an *anatomical cabinet*. — At Dumbarton, too, the author deviates from his accustomed accuracy, when he represents the supreme criminal judges as holding the assizes in the head-town of every county, in succession; their ordinary tribunal being in fact fixed in Edinburgh; and their spring and autumn circuits being limited to a few of the more considerable towns within three great divisions or *aires*. *

From the remarks on the sand-stones of the Firth of Clyde, we extract the following as at least ingenious, and as relating to a phænomenon which has seldom attracted the attention of even professional observers:

The deep-red coloured sand-stones are often marked with white spots, so perfectly round that they present the appearance of having been traced with the compasses. These circles are found from three lines even to six inches in diameter; and in most of them may be discerned, in the precise centre of the white circle, a small deep-black point. The most remarkable circumstance is that the colour of the stone is thus lost, without its nature being in the least changed; and it is not merely in its superficial extent that the red stone has lost its colour: for, in whatever direction it is broken, the black point is always surrounded by a white circular space, so that it occupies the centre

* Wherever we oppose the statements of the present writer, we do it on authority which we know will not mislead us.

The narrative of the excursion to Arran and Bute is followed by a chapter, of considerable length, on the manners of the Scottish Lowlanders. The rapid improvement of their condition, since the period of the Union, is appreciated with just discernment; and a part of the *sober-mindedness*, good morals, and the elementary tincture of education, so observable among the lower orders of their society, may doubtless be traced to the legal establishment of parochial schools. Yet, long before this national institution, the Scots were remarked for a philosophical or metaphysical turn of mind, and for a propensity to religious discussions; and the circumstances which primarily induced this prominent feature in their intellectual character, which prompted their arduous struggles for the Reformation and for the maintenance of the *Solemn League and Covenant*, and which even at this day continue to tinge their imaginations with the dark shades of Calvinistic theology, remain perhaps to be unfolded. Should it be alleged that the different modes of training our youth, in our southern and our northern Universities, may (as M. DE SAUSSURE insinuates) go far to solve the problem, we may be permitted to doubt whether the spirit of our academical discipline and institutions can be fairly supposed to influence the mental habits of the mass of our population; and, even granting that it moulded them entirely, the question would still recur, whence have originated the differences in the views and plans of education?

In the author's outline of the ecclesiastical establishment and church-judicatories of Scotland, we perceive some symptoms of mis-information, or inadvertency. Thus, we are told that the General Assembly is composed of as many ministers and elders as there are presbyteries: but each presbytery, according to its numerical amount, deposes a certain proportion of its members, and an elder; and each University, and every royal borough, return a commissioner, who *must* be an elder, and *may* be a minister. It is not, moreover, the province of this supreme church court to nominate to vacant livings, although it takes cognizance, in the last resort, of the disputed qualifications of presentees: but all civil questions relative to the right of patronage are tried in the Court of Session, from whose decision an appeal may be made to the House of Peers. It is true, however, that, if the patron of a living should neglect to present within six months from the date of the vacancy, the right of nominating devolves to the presbytery within whose bounds such vacancy has taken place. — M. DE S. likewise labours under a mistake, when he asserts that the stipend of a Scotch clergyman never exceeds 150*l.* a year;

that sum being now the *minimum* fixed by law; and many of them, according to the current price of grain, varying from 200*l.* to 300*l.*, or even 400*l.*: while a few may fairly be estimated somewhat higher. After all, the *fattest* benefice, that can be quoted within the range of Presbyterian *parity*, will not be deemed very liberal when we reflect on the long and expensive education of candidates for the church, the hazard of a tedious *probation*, the arduous and useful duties of the ordained ministers, and the respectable rank which they maintain in society. The salary of a minister of Edinburgh was, we have been told, originally on a level with that of a Judge of the Court of Session; and, if so, why is the difference now so great? — As to the *Cameronians*, so far from being the most numerous sect in North Britain, they have greatly dwindled in numbers, and are very thinly scattered over the country. — M. DE S. occasionally dilates on the prejudices which the English continue to foster against the Scots, but never surmizes any reciprocity of unfounded prepossessions. We have reason to believe, however, that, in consequence of the more extended and multiplied intercourse between the two ends of the island, such illiberal ideas are mutually wearing away.

During his tour to the Hebrides, the Genevan Professor was accompanied by a young gentleman who had prosecuted his studies at the University of Edinburgh, and was willing to share the risks and privations incident to such an expedition. The islands which, with more or less diligence, they surveyed, were Mull, Ulva, Staffa, Iona, Coll, Tirey, Eigg, Rum, Canna, Long Island, and Skye. We find Colonsay incidentally mentioned as belonging to Macdonald of Staffa: but its real proprietor we presume to be Macniel of Oransay. Many of the continental naturalists, we doubt not, will be fully sensible of their obligations to this enterprising traveller, who has enabled them to contemplate at leisure, in their closets, these remote and storm-beaten islands; to form some notions of their aspect and structure; and to come in contact, as it were, with the poor but hardy and hospitable beings attached to such rocky and shadeless soil. In the annotations on Staffa, they will find a few pertinent strictures on some of the precipitate assertions and erroneous delineations of *Faujas de Saint-Fond*; and they will be much more fastidious than we are, if they are not pleasingly drawn along by the author's lively style, and his constant anxiety to collect true and valuable information. From this portion of the work, however, which occupies about 330 pages of the second and 50 of the third volume, we beg leave to select only such passages

passages as seem to possess some interest for those of our countrymen who are conversant in the previous communications of Johnson, Boswell, Pennant, and Macculloch; and who would scarcely thank us for involving them in a series of repetitions.

In adverting to the language which the first view of the Cave of Fingal extorted from Sir Joseph Banks and the Bishop of Linköping, M. DE SAUSSURE makes the following judicious reflections:

{ While I can make allowance for the sentiment which inspired these learned men with such a comparison, I cannot altogether concur in their opinion. The perfect regularity of each basaltic column, of which these rocks are composed, may indeed, for a moment, recall the idea of architecture; but we should not urge this parallel too far, since it will not abide the test of deliberate examination. The grand monuments of nature may, like that before us, present regularity in their details, but never display symmetry in the assemblage of their parts; for an indefinite variety pervades the grouping; a certain picturesque disorder manifests (as it were) the signet of nature; and to compare them with the work of man rather tends to injure the very object of our enthusiasm, since it leads us to judge of it by the rules of art. The two styles are so different, that I cannot perceive why our admiration of the one should prevent us from enjoying the other; nor can I subscribe to the opinion of *Troil*, that he who has seen Staffa is no longer capable of admiring the colonnades of the Louvre, of St. Peter's at Rome, or of Palmyra.

Though Staffa yet affords pasture to a few sheep, it has for some time been destitute of a single human resident; and the shepherd's hut, of which *Faujas* gave such a moving picture, now exists only in ruins. One of the present traveller's boatmen, who had lived in it during eight years, described that period of his existence as fraught with gloom and anxiety; stating that he and his companions were often involved in showers of spray, when the whole island shook, and their ears were assailed with the incessant thundering of the waves as they rolled into the cavern, and the howling of the awful tempest.

The Iona pebbles, which some mineralogists have classed with the nephritic stone, and others with indurated steatite, appeared to the present observer to approach more nearly the nature of noble serpentine. They are much less hard than jade, less heavy, and infusible before the common blow-pipe; while they are harder and more translucent than the *baldstein*, or figure-stone of the Germans.

Coll, notwithstanding its apparent insignificance, contains some interesting exhibitions of mineral veins:

H h 2

Enormous

Enormous veins of felspar, often mixed with quartz, black mica, and horn-blend, intersect the beds of gneiss in all sorts of perpendicular and oblique directions, but never parallel to the plains of the beds. The colour of the felspar is whitish, sometimes passing to violet, and at other times to red; its texture is foliated, and its lustre very lively. In its play of colour, it resembles the Labrador felspar; except that it does not, like it, combine rich and changing hues with vividness of lustre. This beautiful felspar occurs disseminated, in crystals very closely approximated, and which often measure more than two inches every way, in a base formed of a mixture of granular quartz, and of opaque dull-white felspar: but the large felspar-crystals are sometimes so intimately grouped, that their cementing base is invisible. They are also usually accompanied with large nodules of vitreous quartz, and with groups of black mica, in the form of laminae, of which the assemblage occupies a surface of several square inches. The rock of which the veins are composed may therefore be termed granite, or porphyritic granite: but the elements which form it are of such considerable dimensions, that it is really a gigantic granite, and such, I believe, as is very rarely seen. As these veins, which have a very considerable length, and a breadth of several feet, seem not to proceed from any mass of granite, since none exists in the isle of Coll or even in the surrounding islands, — and as, moreover, the elements which compose the veins are of the same nature with those which compose the gneiss that they traverse, — I am inclined to regard them as contemporary with the gneiss. We must, then, suppose that some unknown cause had, at the moment of the formation of that rock, allowed the particles of quartz, felspar, and mica, which compose it, to assume a much more ample developement, and to crystallize in large masses. The intervals in which this cause could operate are determined by the extent of the veins. All the rocks which the sea has laid bare, in the western portion of the island, are traversed in every direction by these remarkable veins. In them we meet with rounded masses, more than a foot in diameter, of a beautiful deep-green actynolite, disposed in diverging prisms, or large plates.

Other felspatose veins, not less singular, are observed in the gneiss-rocks to the south of the bay of Brakaka, in the same island, accompanied by superb specimens of black crystallized horn-blend, imbedded in the quartz, and forming a black and white granitel, traversed by veins of amorphous epidote. Mention is likewise made of amorphous veins, which run through the gneiss without altering the appearance of its texture at the points of contact, but exhibiting a finer grain towards the sides than near the middle of the vein; and two of them assume, at the junction, a schistose aspect and fissile texture. There is likewise a stratum of a beautiful white rock, composed of felspar and quartz, and thinly sprinkled

sprinkled with small garnets, of a vivid red hue, the whole susceptible of polish. — The large fucus, so vaguely noticed at page 417. of the second volume, we conceive to be no other than the *digitatus*; and, if so, it grows abundantly on many rocks at a very moderate distance from the beach, so as to be often uncovered at the low ebb of spring-tides, being by no means limited to the deep seas. We may here take leave to remark, as we proceed, that the learned author's indications of the sea-birds, which happened to occur within range of his vision, are more numerous and satisfactory than those of the marine and maritime plants, many of which must have been more accessible to his grasp.

The gneiss of Tirey presents veins of very large-grained granite, analogous to those that we have just described. The singular marble of this island occurs imbedded in the gneiss, near Balaphatric; and the small greenish globules, or little masses that are dispersed through its substance, appear to be malacolite, or sublite. Owing to the numerous fissures in the blocks, this elegant variety of marble cannot be procured in pieces of any considerable size; and we should apprehend that the malacolite grains, which so finely contrast with the rose or flesh colour of the base, may be detached in the act of polishing. In some specimens, have been also observed salient nodules, of two or three inches in diameter; which, when broken, present a substance that has several of the characters of amorphous lepidolite, and of malacolite; which last is easily recognized by its deep-green tint, by its lively and vitreous lustre, and by fusing, with effervescence, into a greenish-grey vesicular enamel. Then succeeds a yellowish and thinly foliated substance, supposed to be another modification of lepidolite; and, lastly, another of a fine sky-blue tint, but in very small particles, which seems to possess the properties of Hauyne: — if so, its situation in a primitive rock is not a little extraordinary.

On their return to Coll, during a heavy gale, and in the confusion that ensued in consequence of all the boatmen having indulged too freely in the *vin du pays*, the party had so nearly perished, that they seem to have been indebted for their safety to the presence of mind and the masterly exertions of the laird of Coll.

In the gneiss-rocks of Soey were found some crystals of green diallage, and a new variety of primitive lime-stone, or marble; being a mixture of foliated carbonate of lime, noble serpentine, and mother-of-pearl coloured spanglets of a substance resembling mica, or talc, but more probably referable to lepidolite, being extremely fusible.

Professor Jameson long since well described the *Scoure of Eigg*, one of the most striking geological phenomena of the British isles; and M. DE SAUSSURE has adopted that gentleman's delineation of its southern side: but, with respect to the composition of the pillars, he contends that their basis is not pitch-stone, but a substance approaching nearer to the nature of obsidian; and that it ought, in the mean time, to be provisionally ranked as a lithoid modification of that mineral, or as a non-descript. It is extremely probable, however, that pitch-stone and obsidian are not essentially distinct, and that they pass into one another. Sir George Mackenzie's observations, if we rightly recollect, strongly corroborate this conjecture. — The occasional notice of *obsidian*, by the way, existing in the Hebrides, is scarcely compatible with the total absence of volcanic agency at the period of its formation. — The account of the *Scoure*, one of the most interesting passages in this work, is followed by the relation of a well-known incident, which should make us less enamoured than the *laudatores temporis acti* of the chivalry of the feudal times: we allude to the barbarous suffocation of a numerous party of Macdonalds by the Macleods of Skye, in one of the caverns of the isle of Eigg, in which are still strewed the bones of the unfortunate sufferers. In another respect, this cavern, which occurs in a rock of wacké, or earthy basalt, is deserving of attention. We are generally tempted to attribute to the sea the formation of the grottoes which are found on its shores: but such an explanation 'is irreconcilable with the form of that which we are now considering. To the sea, in fact, it presents only an aperture of three feet in diameter, at most; whereas in the interior of the rock its height exceeds thirty feet; so that the sea cannot have effected its excavation. We should rather presume that this cavern was formed at the same time as the rock which contains it; and that it is a natural vacuity, effected during the consolidation of the wacké by the disengagement of gases, or aqueous vapour.'

In the parsonage of Eigg, the journalist, though quite unconscious of harm at the time, found that he had hurt the feelings of several of the worthy inmates, by packing and labelling some fine specimens of zeolite, laumonite, &c. on Sunday; and a Highland gentleman, who accompanied him in some of his roamings, gave occasion to still more marked offence by picking up a few stones, although purposely unprovided with a hammer. Such simple traits are worth volumes of commentary. — The population of this island amounts to about 400, nearly one half of whom profess the Roman Catholic religion. 'Although the inhabitants, who observe both forms of wor-

ship,

ship. We on a good understanding with one another, I was amused to hear in this little island several animated discussions on controverted points of theology. These topics of conversation are treated with warmth and vehemence, but without acrimony, or any excess of intolerance: yet one is here surprized to encounter the revival of arguments and a species of dialectics which, in all the rest of Europe, have been allowed for ages to slumber in the tomb of the most profound oblivion.

The *Sun-fish*, mentioned in the passage to Rum, is not a cetaceous animal, but the *Tetrodon mola* of Linné. — In Rum, various specimens of heliotrope, some of them with reddish spots, were collected; yet differing in several particulars from the oriental samples:

Colonel M'Lean of Coll is sole proprietor of the island of Rum. The inhabitants amount to 443, and are all Protestants. We are told that, when Mr. M'Lean's grandfather took possession of the island, all the inhabitants were Catholics: but the new proprietor, a zealous Protestant, perceiving with vexation the kind of worship that was established on this part of his own estates, took his station one Sunday, during mass, at the entrance of the church, dismissed the congregation, shut the door, put the keys in his pocket, and threatened the infliction of his golden-headed cane on those who should presume to return to hear mass. The other Hebridians, in allusion to this new mode of conversion, have ever since called these people the gold-headed-cane Protestants.*

At Canna, the effect of the magnetic influence on Compass-hill was found to be more inconsiderable than it had been reported.

The complications and anomalies of the geological structure of Skye demanded a much more deliberate investigation

* It is curious to reflect on what trivial circumstances the change or the preservation of the established religion, in different districts of Europe, has depended. When the Reformation penetrated into Switzerland, the government of the principality of Neuchâtel, wishing to allow liberty of conscience to all their subjects, invited each parish to vote for or against the adoption of the new worship; and in all the parishes, except two, the majority of suffrages declared in favour of the Protestant communion. The inhabitants of the small village of Creissier had also assembled; and, forming an even number, there happened to be an equality of votes for and against the change of religion. A shepherd being absent, tending the flocks on the hills, they summoned him to appear and decide this important question: when, having no liking to innovations, he gave his voice in favour of the existing form of worship; and this parish remained Catholic, and is so at this day, in the heart of the Protestant cantons.

than M. DE SAUSSURE had it in his power to bestow. We shall, therefore, only mention that, from this island of rain and storms, he crossed over to Ross-shire, and took his weary way over gloomy, monotonous, and far-spread wastes, which afforded him an ample specimen of Highland desolation. On emerging from these dreary solitudes, his eyes were once more gladdened with the sight of cultivation and verdure; and he shaped his course, with accelerated velocity, by Inverness, Elgin, &c. to Edinburgh.

Here terminates the interesting recital of the author's travels, which is composed in the form of a journal. — The greater part of the third volume is devoted to distinct dissertations on the manners of the Scottish Highlanders, before the rebellion in 1745; on the changes effected in their country since that period; on the Gaelic language; on the authenticity of the poems of Ossian; and on Gaelic poetry and music: to which is subjoined an appendix, or general glance at the natural history of Scotland. *In the days of other years*, we might have been tempted to consider these disquisitions in a separate article: but most of the subjects have been so repeatedly canvassed, and some of them are so little susceptible of being reduced to satisfactory statements, that we should now despair of rendering our remarks either novel or generally interesting. This portion of M. DE S.'s labours, however, may awaken a degree of curiosity among the learned of continental Europe; and it is only due to a writer whose pages have afforded us so much rational entertainment, to add that it bespeaks the exercise of honest feelings, and of talents habituated to diligent and acute research. Still we must confess, that we are unromantic enough to entertain serious doubts of the *early* existence of *much* Ossianic poetry; and the present essayist is too sensible and discerning to maintain that it can be traced to the third century of the Christian æra, or that its present form and loveliness owe nothing to the arrangement and embellishments of Mr. Macpherson. Indeed, the longer the question continues to be agitated, the more clearly it seems to be proved that the last-mentioned gentleman wrought his *fabric* on very slender and scattered materials.

Our opinions with regard to the fisheries and migration, also, are not quite in unison with those of the present learned and worthy inquirer. It is true that, if the salt-laws were either abrogated or duly modified, and the occupation of a fisherman entirely separated from that of a cultivator of the soil, ample supplies of fish might be drawn from the Highland coasts: but, without adequate markets for their consumption, they would remain a drug on the hands of the adventurers;

and yet this essential consideration has been generally overlooked in all our patriotic speculations on the subject. Again, the changes in the state of British society, which time and the progress of civilization have brought in their train, and the heavy load of taxation which has fallen on the possessors of the soil, seem imperatively to require that the Highlands of Scotland should be converted into a grazing country; that landlords should turn their property to the best account; and that lazy and unproductive retainers should be removed to scenes of active exertion, and allowed to earn the comforts attendant on habits of regular industry. To effect all this, or even to labour for its accomplishment, is surely not to "do evil that good may come," but to check the menaced approach of widely diffused misery and ruin.

The first three sections of the Appendix relate to the physical configuration and geological structure of Scotland; exhibiting the limits of the respective formations, and the lines of their general direction and dip, unincumbered with any complication of detail: but the *grauwacké* series is represented as including the rocks of granular quartz, conglomerate, red sand-stone, and compact felspar; and consequently comprizing the Sidlay, Campsie, and Ochil ranges of hills. Instead of assigning this latitude of acceptation to the *transition* division, it would perhaps be more philosophical to expunge the term, especially as it owes its origin to a very questionable hypothesis.

With respect to the plants and animals, they are somewhat unceremoniously dismissed in a few pages; and it is erroneously asserted that lizards are unknown in Scotland.

We must now close these volumes, only farther apprizing our readers that the popular and the more scientific chapters are generally so arranged, that they may be perused independently of each other; that the small maps and engravings are executed with more regard to fidelity than to elegance or parade of art; and that the incidental episodes relative to the fate of the Pretender, and other matters, agreeably relieve the attention and affect the feelings.

ART. III. *Floresta de Rimas Antiguas Castellanas*, &c. A Selection of Ancient Spanish Poetry, compiled by DON JOHN NICHOLAS BÖHL DE FABER, of the Royal Spanish Academy. 8vo. pp. 400. Hamburgh. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 15s. sewed.

WE are informed that the editor of the present volume has been engaged for twenty years in the study of ancient Spanish poetry, and that he has been preparing materials for

a much more extensive work, in which he intends to give to the world a complete body of the celebrated writers of Spanish song; accompanied by some dissertations on the progress of poetry and on the structure of verse. The volume now published may be considered as a specimen of the larger work projected, and the selection seems to us to be executed with taste and discrimination. It consists principally of the *chefs d'œuvre* of authors who flourished in the sixteenth or the earliest part of the seventeenth century: but some few compositions are of a more recent date, and several are now first printed, from ancient manuscripts of great rarity.

The poems are arranged under the classes of Religious, Moral, Amorous, and Convivial; and among the first are many to the Virgin Mary, written with that strange mixture of gallantry, superstition, and enthusiasm, which at one time so highly characterized the addresses of Roman Catholic devotees. We shall extract one of them, written by *Pero Lopez de Ayala*, and never before published; and, for the sake of readers who may not be entirely familiar with the language of the original, we subjoin an attempt at a free translation, which may give some though a very imperfect notion of the peculiarities of the original.

‘ *Señora, estrella luciente,
que á todo el mundo guia,
guia á este tu sirviente
que su alma en tí fia.*

‘ *A canela bien oliente
eres, Señora, comparada,
de la mirra de oriente
has loor muy señalada :
á tí fas clamor la gente
en sus cuitas todavía,
quien por pecador se siente
llama á Santa María.*

‘ *Al cedro en la altura
te comparó Salomón,
la iglesia tu fermosura
al cipres del monte Sion :
palma fresca en verdura
fermosa y de grant valia,
y oliva la escritura
te llama, Señora mia.*

‘ *De la mar eres estrella,
del cielo pueria lumbrosa,
despues del parto doncella
de Dios, madre, fija, sposa !*

tu

*tu amansaste la quercella
que por Eva nos venia,
y el mal que fizo ella
por ti hobo mejoría.*

O Lady mine, bright star of heaven,
Thy light so pure and kind
A means and pledge of peace is given
To every pious mind.

Lady, thy fragrance some compare
To sweets in India grown ;
But, ah ! thy breath is lovelier far
Than myrrh or cinnamon.

When woes perplex, when ills befall,
When conscience wounds us sore,
On Holy Mary's name we call,
And feel our troubles o'er.

Mount Sion many a cypress shews
Of beauty rich and rare,
On Lebanon many a cedar grows,
But none with thee compare.

The graceful palm uprears its head,
And boasts its strength and growth;
The olives wide their branches spread ; —
Thy charms eclipse them both.

The sea owns thee its guardian star,
The heaven, its portress mild,
The earth, by titles nobler far,
God's mother, spouse, and child.

Man's fallen state, which cureless seem'd,
Thy mercy could remove ;
And Eve's transgression is redeem'd
By Mary's passing love.

Among the moral poems, we were much pleased to find an old favourite from the works of *Jerón de Lomas*. Those of our readers who are intimate with the Spanish language, and who have not happened to meet with the poem, will be gratified by our extracting the following passage which forms the opening of it ; since it is full of such rich and glowing imagery as might have burst from the fancy of Chaucer.

*‘ Cuando miro la tierra rica y bella
de verdas plantas, de olorosas flores,
y como adorna al cielo cada estrella
con luz ardiente, y asi de mil colores
hermosa variedad mostrarse en ella,
y las aves movidas ya de amores
vagando por los bosques noche y dia
en busca de su dulce compañía.*

‘ Y cuando

' Y cuando miro verdes y hojosos
 los árboles de fresca sombra llenos,
 y de las aves cantos mil sabrosos
 por ellos, que los hacen mas amenos,
 y con murmúrios blandos y amorosos
 ir bañando los rios sus terrenos,
 y todo tal en fin que su belleza
 se goza en contemplar naturaleza.

' Digo entre mí, pensando cuanto es breve
 aquesta nuestra miserable vida :
 que ha poco que encubierta de la nieve
 era esta verde playa tan florida,
 y de una niebla que á la luz se atreve
 la belleza del cielo era impedida
 y las agora erráticas manadas
 estaban en las cuadras encerradas.

' Ni por umbrosas plantas con acentos
 dulces, mostraban aves su hermonía,
 mas cada cual, de los helados vientos
 viéndolo todo yerto, enmudecia :
 y el duro hielo á fuerza y mal contentos
 sus cursos á los rios detenía,
 y cuanto ya se ve rico y gozoso,
 era aquella sazon pobre y lloroso.'

Some of the amorous verses are written in the usual pensive strain, while others evince unaffected sprightliness. We give a slight translation of the *Ebro caudoloso*, (a song which, although the author of it is not ascertained, is well known to most Spanish readers,) as a specimen of the compositions selected in this class.

Ye gentle streams,
 Ye banks thick-gemm'd with flowers,
 Ye blissful meads,
 And cool refreshing bowers,
 Ask of the lovely maid
 Who wantons o'er your glade,
 Whether in moments of such glee
 She thinks of me.

Fair drops of dew
 That tip the freshen'd green,
 And deck each leaf
 With pearls of spangling sheen,
 Ask, while the lovely maid
 Trips o'er each quivering blade,
 Whether in moments of such glee
 She thinks of me.

Ye sparkling walks,
 Begirt with nodding groves,
 Along whose path
 My sprightly fair one roves,
 Should she but chance to stay,
 And listen, ask, I pray,
 Whether in moments of such glee
 She thinks of me.

Ye chirping birds
 Who watch the morning grey,
 And with shrill voice
 Greet the first break of day,
 Ask of the lovely fair,
 The boast of all who habit there,
 Whether in moments of such glee
 She thinks of me.

The convivial or facetious poems selected by Don JOHN DE FABER are written with much freedom and vivacity, and selected with the same good judgment which is shewn in the other classes. If we have any animadversion to make, after having examined the whole volume, it is only an expression of regret that he has not given us a more copious allotment of the '*Rimas Amorasas*;' for the Spanish language contains a much greater proportion of poems and songs on this subject, which are unrivalled in their union of simplicity with warmth of feeling, than the extent occupied by this class in the present selection might lead the reader to suppose. We have received, however, so much pleasure on the present occasion, that we are not disposed to be hypercritical; and, while we recommend the volume to the admirers of Spanish poetry as an extremely judicious and valuable compilation, we look forwards with great hopes to the results of the editor's labours on a more extended scale.

The volume is well printed, on good paper, with a handsome frontispiece.

ART. IV. *Manuel Historique du Système Politique, &c.; i. e.*
 An Historical Manual of the Political System of European States, and of their Colonies, since the Discovery of the two Indies. By M. HEEREN, Professor of History in the University of Goettingen, &c. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 364. Paris. 1821.

WE had great pleasure some years ago in noticing two valuable works by M. HEEREN, one on the Nations of Antiquity, (see M.R. N.S. vol. xi. p. 555. vol. xxii. p. 497.) and the other on the Crusades (see vol. lx. p. 466.). He has since

since published in German a series of historical essays, and a compendious history of the policy of the states of modern Europe: divided into three periods, the first commencing with the discovery of America, and extending to the beginning of the reign of Louis the Fourteenth; the second, from that æra to the death of Frederic the Great; and the third, from that time to the establishment of the French empire. The volume before us is a translation of this work to the end of the second period; the editor cautiously declining to enter on that portion which embraces the history of the French Revolution, and assuring the reader that it is a very delicate subject, which cannot yet be impartially treated even by foreigners. We proceed, therefore, to comment on so much of M. HEEREN'S production as we here find made accessible to the French nation.

The petty disturbances and revolutions in Italy at the close of the fifteenth century would scarcely deserve notice, if they had not served to bring into play the great rival powers of France and Spain. Election to the empire, and a course of refined policy, secured the ascendancy to Charles the Fifth; and Spain was for a while raised to an eminence from which her subsequent history has been one continued decline: while the tyrannical measures pursued by Philip the Second in the Low Countries ended in the independence of Holland; and the absurd restrictions imposed by him and his successors on the trade of Portugal, which were designed to prevent the Dutch from carrying the goods of the East Indies from Portugal to the north of Europe, not only compelled them to seek a trade direct to India, in the course of which pursuit they made themselves masters of the Moluccas and of the Isle of Java, but rendered the possession of Portugal an incumbrance to Spain as long as it continued dependant, and terminated in the establishment of the house of Braganza and the inextinguishable hatred of the Portuguese nation. With regard to the conduct of Philip the Second in the Low Countries, we think that M. HEEREN says rather too much in extenuation of it. Though it is true that just principles of religious toleration were not then understood, the experience of half a century had shewn that religious opinions were not to be counted for nothing; and all ages had proved that there is a point of endurance, beyond which human nature is no longer passive. In fact, Philip was quite as much influenced by the wantonness of power as by ignorance or bigotry. The destruction of the Spanish Armada, which turned the attention of the English to naval affairs, excited their ambition of supremacy on the seas; and the wise policy of Queen Elizabeth, in her inter-

interference with foreign affairs, her encouragement of trade, and her protection of refugees from Catholic persecution, placed England in a proud situation as the champion of Protestantism and the arbitress of Europe, from which the imbecility of the Stuarts subsequently degraded her for nearly a century. — The remote as well as the more immediate effects of the Reformation are traced by M. HEEREN in a very masterly manner; and we quote his account of the establishment of the Jesuits, because we think that his remarks are extremely just, and recent events make the subject interesting and important at this time.

‘Among the consequences of the Reformation may be classed, if not the institution of the Jesuits, at least the system pursued by that Society, whose uniform object has been to subjugate public opinion. Devoted to the cause of popery, — that is to say, to the unbounded extension of the power of the Roman see, — it has necessarily had to contend not only with Protestantism but with all freedom of mind, and certainly the period of its establishment offered some prospect of success. The institution was sufficiently comprehensive, for its aim was to embrace all mankind; and the plan for its advancement was sufficiently accommodating, for it was restrained by no rule. Still, at the outset, it was necessary to fall in with the spirit of the times; and the Society, in order to make any progress, was obliged to sacrifice some portion of its own principles, and to assume the form of surrounding objects. The grand design, however, was never to be out of sight; and therefore the Society, by its inherent constitution, must either become omnipotent by success or be crushed by failure. Before it arrived at this crisis, it had a long preparatory course to go through; and we cannot, therefore, be surprized either at the extent or the duration of the power which it acquired. Its interference in politics was only a mode of accomplishing its ultimate object; a means necessary but dangerous, because it must inevitably have all governments arrayed in hostility against itself as soon as it should be deserted by public opinion: for to public opinion, in the last resort, princes are compelled to defer. Advancing according to occasion, by intrigues, or in open day, it succeeded in throwing a net over all the governments of Europe, and the bonds of its influence were felt not only by the states separately but throughout the system. It would be difficult, if not impossible, to state at what precise periods and to what extent its secret agency operated: but its power may be tolerably well conjectured from the nature of its organization.

‘*Ignatius Loyala*, an ardent enthusiast, founded the Society of Jesus at first under the form of a private association (1534). It was sanctioned by Paul the Third (1540), and very much enlarged in 1543 and 1549; so that, favoured also by the spirit of the times, it became exceedingly prosperous in spite of several obstacles. Soon after the death of its founder (1556), it distributed itself throughout

throughout nine provinces, comprizing the whole of western Europe. One province was established in Portugal, three in Spain, one in France, two in Germany and the Low Countries, and two in Italy. Its missions embraced the rest of the world in three provinces, the Brazils, Ethiopia, and the Indies. The exterior forms adopted by the Society were not entirely peculiar, nor in every respect accommodated to existing usages, but were such as seemed to indicate personages living in the world, and at the same time not being altogether of the world. It possessed colleges and schools, but no cloisters; and the dress was ecclesiastical, but not monastic. With regard to their internal system, their discipline was naturally founded on the principle of absolute power and implicit obedience. The head of the Society, who bore the title of *Præpositus Generalis*, was independent of all the world excepting the Pope, and his constant residence was at Rome. From the time of the Jesuit Lainez (1558—1564), who exercised the most unbounded authority, the leader of the Society has been invested with the whole executive power; and, soon after that time, notwithstanding the continuance of general and provincial assemblies, with the whole legislative power. Under him were arranged in regular subordination assistants, provincials, and rectors. The authority of the Pope over the head of the Society could not inconvenience him much, because their interests were the same, and the mode of forwarding the objects of the Society was always left to the discretion of the chief. The members of this body were classed under the titles of Novices, Disciples, Associates, and Professed; and, while the number of professed or complete Jesuits was kept very limited, it was supported by a body of adopted or disguised Jesuits, who were not characterized by any dress, and in whose ranks were to be found many nobles and dignitaries of the Church. The chief means adopted by them for extending their principles were missions, the confessional, (particularly in courts,) and the education of persons of all ages and all classes of society. The institution was essentially mischievous, being intended and calculated to bandage and enthrall the intellect, and to strangle the rational faculties of man: yet it must be admitted that benefit has been derived from its exertions in propagating Christianity in uncivilized countries, and from some of the modes which it discovered for facilitating instruction. Unfortunatly, however, the good which it effected forms but a slight counterpoise to the numerous and weighty mischiefs which it occasioned.

Such is the account of this formidable Society, which has been threatened with disorganization every state in Europe, and which more than any other cause has kept alive to the present day the fiction of the Pope's right to temporal power in foreign countries, as the head of religion. The disorganization of this Society may be considered as the acme of papal policy.

The affairs of religion were the grand fomenters and protracters of the 'Thirty Years' war, which first brought down the powers of the north to mix in the politics of the southern states. Gustavus Adolphus was one of those great geniuses who are sure to find or to create opportunities for the exertion of their powers, under any circumstances; and one of those noble and happy beings, whose exertions have conducted to the benefit of their country and of mankind. Poland had already experienced the superiority of his talents; and it was a fortunate escape for Sigismund the Third when *Richelieu* summoned the Swede to enter on a more extensive and brilliant career in Germany. He was the saviour of the Protestant interest in the empire; and indeed without him, perhaps, that cause might have been ruined throughout Europe. At his death, he left Sweden in a rank amid the nations of Europe to which she had never before aspired, and which his successors were not able to maintain: but the stamp of his superior genius still survived in Europe, for he had improved the discipline of armies and created a new system of military tactics.

M. HEEREN seems inclined to attribute the preservation of the integrity and independence of Germany to the destruction of Wallenstein: — but, enigmatical as the latter part of that General's conduct undoubtedly was, it is right to observe that the original charges of his accuser Scesina have never been given to the world; and that it was so much after the manner of *Richelieu* to sow dissensions in an enemy's quarters, that the Emperor's suspicions have been by many supposed to originate in the intrigues of that Cardinal.

The policy of *Richelieu* and of *Mazarin* prepared the way for that ascendancy in the affairs of Europe to which France aspired, and which for a time she attained, in the reign of Louis the Fourteenth: but the author's view of the measures and the character of that sovereign appears to us much too favourable. His revocation of the edict of Nantz shewed how little he understood the true principles of policy, or how entirely he preferred his own gratification to the welfare and the power of his kingdom. He committed also an irretrievable error in delaying to proclaim war against Holland in 1698; since the half measures which he adopted effected nothing, while by early decision he might have prevented the Stadtholder from executing his project of landing in England: thus giving another chance to his ally and dependant, James the Second, for continuing on the English throne, than which nothing could be more important for the interests of France. On other occasions, Louis could not be accused of want of

eagerness in commencing warfare. His love of conquest, indeed, was not regulated by the interests of the nation, but was the mania of vanity; and, notwithstanding the providence of *Colbert* in the early part of his reign, he exhausted his exchequer, and left the finances of the kingdom in a state of ruin: while his extravagant boastings and pretences roused the jealousies and fears of other nations. The losses which he brought on his country were considerable, and would have been much greater if the allies had shewn any moderation in the terms which they proposed at the moment of their highest success.

While these embroilments were taking place in the heart of Europe, a really great character was creating a new military force, a new marine, and a new empire in the wilds of the north. The whole course of the war of Peter against Charles the Twelfth was the war of prudence and good sense against talent and infatuation; and the power of Russia immediately became not only predominant in the north, but formidable whenever it was induced to assume a part in the wars of the south. — A sovereign equally sagacious, but more subtle and unprincipled, not long afterward took the reins of government in Prussia, and completed the superstructure on those foundations which his ancestor Frederic-William, the great elector, had prepared at the close of the preceding century. We think that our readers will be pleased with M. HEEREN's account of the result of the measures pursued by that sovereign:

‘ The Prussian monarchy, elevated by Frederic the Great to a place among the leading powers of the Continent, was, during his reign, almost doubled in extent and in population: but its interior organization, and consequently the essential character of its government, continued nearly the same as it had been constituted by Frederic the First. His son enlarged and completed the system, but still retained for the basis all the antient institutions. The constitution of Prussia was a pure autocracy, destitute of any such assembly of states as existed throughout the rest of Germany; and it was perhaps on this very account that the Prussian monarchy, although otherwise respected and justly admired, never engaged the affection of its neighbours. The continual enlargement of the army rendered it every day more necessary to maintain those principles of economy which were established by the founder of the Prussian monarchy. Frederic the Great shewed himself attentive to the lessons of his father, and annually raised by anticipation a certain sum exceeding the calculated expenditure, as a fund of reserve. This scheme prevented the foundation of those splendid establishments, by which the liberality of the prince often becomes the source of hardships to the subjects: but in other respects every plan of excellence and utility, which could be carried
into

into execution under a power single and despotic, was supported and encouraged. The system of laws, the administration of justice, and the practice of agriculture, received important improvements. Liberty of speech and of the press was as complete as it could be wished, and Prussia may boast of having been the first nation on the Continent to set this example to her neighbours. The absolute nature of the government also remedied, in some degree at least, that want of uniformity and of consistency which was inevitable in a nation and country formed by the successive incorporation of several small states. In the person of the King all the public administration centred; and, as he was endowed with great self-command and powers of activity, he never failed in the discharge of his duties, but all the affairs of state were frequently arranged before the dawn of day. We cannot contemplate without profound respect the long life of this great man; who, presiding for half a century over the affairs of Europe, uniformly shewed himself scrupulous in the execution of those high functions which were imposed on him by his rank and his talents. He never completely sympathized, however, with his own people: but, devoted to his engagements as sovereign, he kept himself entirely aloof in the habits of private life, and passed his time in the midst of a small circle of foreigners. This total estrangement was a misfortune both to the sovereign and to the nation; for it prevented the latter from obtaining in Europe the respect and consideration which were due to them, and it did not allow the former to be sufficiently acquainted with the characters of his subjects and the course of public opinion. — Instead of perceiving, therefore, that the strength of a state consists in its constitution and in the wealth of the nation, Frederic imagined that it was centred in his army and exchequer; so that he made it his aim to realize the notion of a standing army, and exerted his talents to give to its organization all the perfection of a machine. The distinction between the military and the civil departments was no where so strongly marked as in the Prussian monarchy; and no where was the internal weakness of the state so well disguised under the appearance of great public strength. The same principle, applied to the civil departments, involved consequences still more mischievous. In a country in which the ministers were nothing higher than chief agents, and the ablest characters had no freedom of action, it was impossible for the most zealous to become able statesmen, and the exertions of those in the inferior departments were paralyzed by a load of tedious and unmeaning forms. Doubtless, the personal character of the king aggravated all these evils: but the source of the grievance lay in the constitution itself as formed by the first Frederic. The consequence was that the destiny of the country depended almost entirely on the person of the sovereign; finding himself competent to the task, he would not form any council of state; and by the omission he deprived himself of one of the most efficacious means which an hereditary and absolute monarch can possess, for perpetuating and transmitting to his

successors on the throne the spirit and details of any system of policy.

These remarks appear to us exceedingly just. As to Frederick himself, it must be remembered that the glory of the noblest war in which he was engaged, that of the Seven Years, must be divided with our consummate statesman, Lord Chatham. His earliest encroachments, also, were so unjust and unprincipled that he scarcely attempted to palliate them by any pretexts; and at the close of his career he connived at and participated in the infamous measures for the partition of Poland: — England being at that moment too much engaged in a war of oppression and vengeance against her own colonies, to interfere in preventing a system of injury and spoliation on the Continent of Europe.

The great excellence of the present work is that, by a generally happy selection of striking and important events, the author has been able to unite the most comprehensive views with the most minute details. By judicious arrangement, also, and a succinct manner, he has compressed a vast mass of materials into a small compass; the facts and the comments are so judiciously intermixed as to be illustrative of each other; and, while the reader is in some degree prepared by the statements for the deductions which follow, he likewise finds that the principles deduced more strongly impress the particular facts on his memory. — The history of colonization seems always to have been a favourite subject with M. HEEREN; and the views of the rise and progress of the colonies of modern Europe, introduced into the volume before us, afford the most complete general history on that subject, during the period which the work embraces, that has yet been offered to the public.

Among the minor points discussed by M. HEEREN, we think the following conclusions are of a questionable nature. In the introduction, (page 5.) he considers the prejudice entertained by princes against degrading themselves by intermarriage with any but royal families, and the circumstance that the petty principalities of Germany have been able to furnish queens for most countries, as having operated on the whole for the benefit of Europe. The vague scheme contemplated by Henry the Fourth of France, of modelling Europe into a Christian commonwealth, is discussed (page 82.) as if it had been some clear and definite plan; and credit is given, we conceive, without any grounds, to that monarch as if he had anticipated and endeavoured to prevent the convulsions of the Thirty Years' war. In one place, (page 12.) Venice at the close of the fifteenth century is rather unfortunately

tunately compared to a rich mercantile house retiring from trade: since the retirement of Venice was by no means voluntary, or the consequence either of her opulence or her love of ease. The discovery of a new passage to the East had transferred the seat of her principal commerce to Lisbon; and the great reluctance of Venice to abandon the competition may be seen from the attempts which she made to crush the rising power of the Portuguese in the East, by rousing against that nation the Sultans of Egypt and the Turkish emperors, and uniting her own forces with those powers. — We suspect there is some refinement in the influence on politics, trade, and literature, which is attributed by M. HEEREN (page 192.) to the establishment of coffee-houses. The same notion, if we recollect rightly, is somewhere suggested by M. Beckmann. It is a very singular subject, and certainly deserves consideration: but we think that the effects imputed are exaggerated.

M. HEEREN's account of the decline of the Turkish power is, as he himself seems aware, very incomplete, and inadequate to the importance of the subject. This is a topic, indeed, which deserves more illustration than it has yet received from any author; and it should be discussed at large as evincing how much all arbitrary governments depend on the personal character of the sovereign, and how completely the military, when used as the grand engine of state, become the lords of the sovereignty.

As a valuable feature of this work, we may mention that each portion of it is prefaced by a list of the authorities on the subject, with remarks on their merits. These observations are in general very correct, but we observe the following trivial errors. In page 119. it is stated that Algernon Sidney, besides his "Discourses on Government," wrote "A Refutation of Filmer;" whereas the only refutation written by Sidney, and a very complete one it is, will be found in those discourses; — and in page 129. the author somewhat unadvisedly characterizes Selden's "*Mare Clausum*" as consisting of nothing but absurd declamation.

It is but fair to M. HEEREN to add that the petty inaccuracies, which we seem to have discovered, are but as specks in the sun, for that his book exhibits profound research and abounds with admirable political reflections. Its compactness, moreover, cannot be too highly praised; and we wish the "*Manuel Historique*" to be as well known as it really deserves.

Art. V. *Esprit, Origine, et Progrès des Institutions Judiciaires*, &c.; i. e. The Spirit, Origin, and Progress, of the Judicial Institutions in the principal Countries of Europe. By J. De MEYER, Knight of the Royal Order of the Belgic Lion, of the Royal Institute of the Low Countries, &c. &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. Printed at the Hague, and sold in London by Butterworth. Price 17. 4s.

It is very gratifying to observe the great interest which is taken by the nations of the Continent, and particularly by France and Germany, in inquiries relating to the constitution of governments, and to the most efficient means of securing the welfare of communities. The Italians continue to pour forth declamations on the excellence of liberty, and on the invaluable blessings enjoyed in free states: but real freedom is something more than personal independence; or popular licentiousness:—it requires to be supported by just principles of education; by a well regulated distribution of those powers of government which, under some name, must exist in every state; by laws wisely enacted for protecting the persons and property of individuals; and by an effectual and impartial administration of those laws.

The object of M. MEYER is to consider the last of these subjects, and the three volumes before us are only a portion of a work devoted to the investigation of the different judicial institutions in Germany, England, France, and the Netherlands. The first comprehends the judicial institutions of ancient Germany; and the author has deemed it necessary to enter into a detailed account of the forms of government, of the ranks of the people, and of the gradual introduction and development of the feudal system, though such subjects do not seem to be within the direct line of his inquiries. We cannot say that his researches on these topics have produced any observations of a novel nature; and he seems too often to lose himself in useless perplexities about verbal definitions, or in ascertaining the exact meaning of distinctions, when the greatest degree of probability can still be but conjecture. We regret this the more, because the subjects discussed seem to us only collateral, if not absolutely irrelevant, to the main design; and it is painful to be teased with frivolous discussions on points incapable of solution, in a work which professes to be directed to a more attainable object, and to investigations of practical utility. The etymologist, the antiquary, and the general historian may find themselves compelled to enter into this track of endless and apparently unprofitable labour: but we cannot see any just reason why a sufficient account of the ancient courts of justice in Germany may

may not be communicated to us without a prelude of 250 pages on Heribannum and Halbannum, Werigildum and Leutigildum, Antrustions, Benefices, and Fiefs.

M. MEYER's review of the antient courts of judicature in Germany, when we reach it, is written in a very clear and judicious manner; and in the course of his examination he combats (we think) with success some ingenious but fanciful hypotheses brought forwards by *Eichhorn*, to which the just celebrity of that Professor had given a degree of currency among his own countrymen. In our own literature, the subjects of judicial combats, of the modes of procedure in the lords' courts, of appeals, of the trial of a man by his peers, and of the succession of national courts to those of limited jurisdiction, have been completely exhausted. Our readers, however, may not be displeased to see the general reflections which are suggested to M. MEYER's mind by the examination of this portion of his subject:

‘ One general observation cannot fail to strike every person who studies with attention the history of the laws, manners, and customs of that interesting period on which we are engaged: viz. that in every case the excess of an evil has brought its own remedy with it; and that those, in general, who have introduced any innovation for their individual aggrandizement, have in the event fallen victims to the consequences of their exactions. The Germans, while they were free and independent, elected chiefs to secure them from foreign attacks, and then soon experienced oppression from their kings and their earls. The kings provided themselves with ministers for the purpose of extending their power over their free subjects, but they soon found their own authority eclipsed by that of their haughty dependants. Commissioners of justice were sent into the provinces to maintain the rights of the emperors, and to protect the people against the tyranny of the earls; and these commissioners not only usurped a great portion of the imperial power, but aggravated the oppression which the inhabitants had before suffered. Free men became vassals that they might be exempt from serving in the armies and courts of the nation: but by so doing they involved themselves in all the personal quarrels of their lords, and were obliged to sit in their courts. The lords exonerated themselves from the judicial duties by devolving the right of judgment on the *pares curiæ*, and these became the first counterpoise to the authority of the nobles: for, when the lords would not submit to the sovereign without the concurrence of his principal barons, this precaution became the origin of that court of appeals which diminished their influence as dispensers of justice. The clergy encouraged the formation of permanent courts and the introduction of learning; and it is owing to the advancement of general information, that they have lost the greatest part of the power which they once held. Kings protected the establishment

ishment of towns and cities, in the hope of disengaging themselves from the shackles imposed on them by their great vassals; and the advantages thus derived by the commons have enabled them, in several countries of Europe, to introduce a constitutional power as a check to the prerogative: while in other countries were thus excited constitutional principles, and an ardent wish for constitutional forms of government. The people, who had expected every benefit from those permanent tribunals which emancipated them from the lords' courts, found themselves in many cases deprived of that publicity of proceedings which is the main security of personal liberty. It would not be difficult to increase the number of these instances; and, if the advancement of the arts and sciences has given to the present age an undoubted superiority over all preceding æras; if fortunate discoveries have facilitated the means of communication; if the art of printing, after having conducted to the developement of knowledge, secures us at the same time from any risk of relapsing into antient barbarism; if the experience of past ages, and above all of the recent periods which we have witnessed, can and must contribute to strengthen our judgment, to secure us from excesses, and to induce us to reject every species of prejudice; we shall discover on all occasions that personal liberty is the greatest blessing of society, and that this blessing is to be produced and secured only by good judicial institutions: — we shall be sensible, on every occasion, of the necessity of making some approximation to a system founded on this personal liberty, which is very different from political or civil liberty; and we shall be very anxious to discover its true foundations. Our ancestors had a similar system, and we shall observe to what extent it has been pursued by some modern nations. Perhaps the time has come at which the nations of Europe may not disdain to tread in some degree in their footsteps; and, by such means, they may be enabled to combine with the liberty and the noble courage of the antient Germans those milder principles, and those more attractive forms, which are suited to a more advanced state of civilization.

In the second volume, M. MEYER proceeds to consider the Courts of Judicature in England. This portion of the work is in a great degree compiled from Blackstone and Hume, from Reeves's History of the English Law, from the admirable account of the British Constitution in Mr. Hallam's View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages, and from a critique in a contemporary Journal. With the help of these authorities, M. MEYER has given an intelligible and (on the whole) a very just account of the progress and present state of our judicial system. In several particulars, however, when he enters into minute detail, he falls into errors which are natural and excusable in a foreigner who is speaking of institutions which have nothing directly analogous in his own country. Thus, vol. ii. page 308., he erroneously states that the Master

Master of the Rolls is not a Judge, but, like the other Masters in Chancery, is a mere referee of some point in a cause, in which he is to make his report to the Chancellor. So again, in mentioning the inconveniences of trial by jury in civil actions, page 305, he supposes a case of one of the parties suppressing the real gist of the action, which is rendered impossible by the course of the pleadings of England; and in the following page he shews considerable misapprehension about the circumstances under which a new trial may be directed by the Judges, and attributes to that power of the Judges a much greater degree of influence than really belongs to it. In page 312, also, he mistakes in supposing that an appeal can be made from a decree of the Chancellor, or of the Vice-Chancellor, to the Court of Exchequer Chamber. Notwithstanding these and some other errors of a similar nature, it is, but due to the author to state that his remarks give a very great insight into the general nature of our courts of Justice, the boundaries of their jurisdiction, and their different modes of procedure; and it is most creditable to the industry of a foreigner to have examined subjects of so much intricacy with so much success. He gives unqualified praise to the publicity of the proceedings in our courts of law, and to the trial by jury in criminal cases, though he questions the benefit of that institution in civil actions: some of his objections on which head appear, as we hinted before, to originate in misapprehension. He objects to the concentration of the principal courts in the English metropolis, and to the administration of justice throughout the kingdom by twelve Judges: but we doubt whether he has sufficiently considered the inconvenience of giving to provincial courts the cognizance of causes of any considerable importance, either with or without appeal. If without appeal, great irregularity would be produced in the adjudications, and consequently in the rules of property in different parts of the kingdom: while, if an appeal were allowed, it would only be adding another link to the series of litigation. The benefit of a constant communication among the interpreters of the laws, — particularly in a country where so much authority is attributed to inveterate usage, to former interpretations of what is written, and to former adjudications in cases for which the law, though unwritten, is supposed to have made provision, — cannot be too highly appreciated. The principal inconvenience, in fact, belonging to the present system, is in criminal matters; and perhaps this evil might be much alleviated, if the circuits were made throughout the kingdom four times in the year, and

and if some additional Judges, perhaps, were commissioned to assist in the more remote counties.

Volume III. contains a History of the System of Judicature in France previously to the Revolution; and it is the fullest and most complete developement, which has fallen under our notice, of the evils and mischiefs introduced under the old *regime* into the judicial departments. Nothing can tend more to debase the spirit of a people than the venality or the pusillanimity, or the truckling accommodating spirit, of those who are commissioned to administer justice. The security of a man's own person, and of his property, as long as he abstains from injuring others, is one of the great ends of political association: but, if the Judges are awed by the cabals of a court, or made dependent on the caprice of a favourite, — if a man's property may be decreed away from him by the corruption of the ministers of justice, — no one can feel independent, because no one can feel certain of enjoying the fruits of his labour or his own personal freedom for a moment. Such a state of insecurity, where innocence is no protection, and virtue and integrity may be rewarded with penury or a dungeon, is a galling servitude. The mischiefs that have been produced in the French monarchy, by the mixture of political feelings in the administration of justice, cannot be over-rated. A sense of the insecurity of their rights, and of the partial and corrupt distribution of justice, made the many solicitous for a change; because they were convinced that no revolution could produce a state more unfavourable to industry and happiness, than a government in which force and favour presided in the courts of judicature, and decreed injustice in all the due forms of law. The higher orders, also, were glad to throw off those odious engines of tyranny, the *lettres de cachet*, by which the crown and the Judges, partly in their own self-defence, had been accustomed to overawe the great. Wherever courts of justice or the ministers of the crown are trusted with such arbitrary powers, not only the actual victims are oppressed but the whole community is placed lower in the rank of existence. The system of *espionage*, of secret informations, and of sudden imprisonments, does not merely terrify or render desperate the vicious, but it humiliates the virtuous part of the people, and makes every person's ordinary and natural rights depend on the discretion of his superiors. Seldom does any convulsion take place in a state, until the mass of the community have been goaded by wrongs which they could no longer endure, and which they could no otherwise remedy. Little, indeed, is known of the state of France preceding the Revolution, by those who content themselves with

with studying the gorgeous descriptions of its chivalrous peers, its learned Judges, and its pure priesthood, as given by party-writers in this country at the time of the Revolution, with all the eloquence which enthusiasm could supply, in order to excite antipathy against the odious regicide. Persons of reflection, however, will somewhat abate their astonishment even at the excesses of that tempestuous period, when they observe for how long a time previously, and to what a degree, the fountains of law had been corrupted; and how long those public perversions of justice had been perpetrated which outrage every feeling of the heart, until they end in perverting the common distinctions of right and wrong, and make the vulgar believe that *right* is nothing else than *might*, that virtue is nothing more than appearance or a name, and that the gradations of society are the usurpations of the cunning over their ignorant fellows. In the art of disorganizing governments and demoralizing communities, no happier expedient or more efficacious rule could be conceived, than that of defiling the sanctuary of justice; and, under the appearance of protecting laws, — under the sanction of forms, solemnities, and grave dignified proceedings, — to dispense the caprices of the minions of power, to decree pillage in order to shield oppression, and to treat a portion of the community as aliens and outlaws. The prostitution of justice is an act of treachery against civil society; it is a sacrilege which Providence, in the constitution of human affairs, does not leave unavenged; it is an act of suicide, and becomes from its own nature the subversion of every government which commits it.

We lay before our readers the short and able summary in which M. MEYER recapitulates the most striking particulars that had occurred to him, in his investigation of the constitution and procedure of the different courts in France; though our translation, we fear, will give but an imperfect notion of the vigour and energy of the original :

• We cannot help observing, at every step which we take, that the real freedom, the strength, and the welfare of the state depend on an equal distribution of authority between the sovereign and the people; a distribution of which England offers a favourable instance, not only in the legislative and executive departments but also in the judicial; while in France the influence of the monarch, absorbing all the intermediate authorities, acquired a power unlimited, and therefore in its nature precarious. When all those institutions, which with greater or less efficiency secured the liberties of the people, or of individuals, were overturned, the king was every thing, the nation nothing. Antient customs, respected because all trace of their origin had been lost, but which gave way whenever opposed by an express declaration of the will

of the monarch, held the place of fundamental laws, of a constitution, and of a charter. Even as to these usages, if they were infringed, no person was invested with authority to remedy the evil: but humble remonstrances and supplications were the only resource of the first bodies in the state, when they deemed their privileges violated. The princes of the blood, the peers, the clergy, the nobility, the commons, the parliaments, and the provincial assemblies, maintained their rights not by vigorous and energetic declarations, but by petitions, to which the kings made answer according to their good will and pleasure. The administration of justice was subject to the same influence: the courts of law were infected with the same timidity; and whoever was a favourite at the court of the king, or had the good fortune to be patronized by a favourite, was in a manner above the laws. The inferior courts were absolutely despised; and the parliaments, which were more respected for their influence on the administration and the finances (objects which form no part of their original institution) than for their judicial authority, were humiliated by bills of cassation, or of rehearing, frequently procured by favour, and had nothing to indemnify them but that secrecy in criminal proceedings which surrounded them with a power rather dreaded than respected. These very abuses, however, shewed the extent of their authority, and indemnified them for the misunderstandings which they experienced from those who were nearest to the person of the monarch. The system of laws was a strange mixture of antient edicts pronounced by independent sovereigns, and of customs formed at a period when each canton had its peculiar interests, that were stamped with the character of the age in which they originated. The want of unity in administering the laws destroyed every notion of system. If the kings promulgated general edicts, the supreme provincial courts refused to register them, or registered them with modifications. When the parliaments introduced new laws under the modest title of arrests of regulation, such encroachments were permitted by the court in indifferent matters, with the view of withdrawing their attention from considerations of greater moment, or of conciliating their generosity in measures of finance; a subject to which the court attached a paramount interest. The variety of laws and customs, and the doubts on points of jurisdiction, made the issue depend not merely on the personal opinion of the Judge as to the question of right, but on the state of the law; since, while one Judge was imperatively bound, another was left to exercise a discretion. At length, the inferior courts fell into contempt. The parliaments themselves experienced the same loss of authority and respect, while they considered the determination as depending on the will and not on the duty of the courts of justice. The most important arrests were solicited, procured, and cancelled, as a matter of favour. The judicial authority, by means of these encroachments and usurpations, revenged itself in some degree against the course of public opinion, against the vulgar pride of the nobility, and the abuses of the court and the grandees. The venality of posts
of

of honour, which rendered them in the event permanent and inheritable, facilitated this assumption of power ; and, while the same families continued in the exercise of the same functions, that *esprit de corps* which seems to be an evil inseparable from all public bodies acquired redoubled force. The courts of justice, therefore, while their conduct sullied the lustre of their ermine, and brought contempt on the venerable functions with which they were intrusted, rendered themselves more considerable in the eyes of the vulgar by incroachments and usurpations, though by these very means they in fact still farther disgraced their true dignity.

The contempt in which the judicial functions were held is shewn by the frequency of special commissions, and of extraordinary jurisdictions, created on special occasions or for particular cases. Every body knows the reply of the monk who, when the king asked why a person who had been condemned to death had been buried in consecrated ground, said that he had not been condemned by judges, but by commissioners ; an answer which contains a history of all special commissions. A court of exception, although permanent, proves some fault in the judicial system, and betrays the desire of insuring a verdict in cases reserved. A special commission shews at once but little respect towards the functionaries who are intrusted with the discharge of it, and a desire of violating the established laws for the purpose of injury or of indulgence. All these measures attack the most sacred duty of a state, the impartial administration of justice, and no country offers more instances of this interposition of the crown than antient France : while no country, on the other hand, has had fewer special courts or extraordinary commissions than England. In Great Britain, the king as well as the people, and the upper as well as the lower house of parliament, are impressed with the importance of a regular administration of justice, as the best security for the rights of individuals, and the most substantial groundwork of national welfare ; while in France such an orderly course has not been duly appreciated, but the will of the king and his pleasure at the moment have constituted the law.

We look forwards with great interest to the proposed continuation of this work. The consideration of the courts in the Netherlands and Germany, in more recent times, is a field of inquiry both important and attractive ; and M. MEYER will effect a real service to the science of legislation by collecting together all the information that can be obtained respecting the principal systems of judicature, and their modes of proceeding. He has also, by the observations which he has interspersed through the volumes already published, proved that he is fully capable of performing the much higher and more difficult office of comparing together the different institutions which he brings under survey, and of pronouncing judgment on their respective merits and inconveniences. He

shews

shews himself on many occasions to be possessed of a very philosophical turn of mind; and to be endowed with the discrimination, and the quiet good sense, that are peculiarly requisite in the course of study to which he has devoted himself. By limiting his inquiries to a particular object, if he is compelled to move in a less ambitious sphere than *Montesquieu*, he has at least been able to avoid that writer's uncertainty of design, as well as his abruptness and magisterial tone. Indeed, we think that we do M. MEYER no more than justice when we say that in precision, in luminous arrangement, in a comprehensive view of the subjects which he discusses, and (with the exception of some excursions of useless learning on which we have animadverted) in his fixed aim at practical utility in his inquiries, we know not any publication which the Continent has produced, for many years, so well deserving to be classed with the treatises in legislation of our profound and enlightened countryman, Bentham.

ART. VI. *Viaggi di Francesco Petrarca, &c.; i. e. Travels of Petrarch in France, Germany, and Italy.* By Professor AMBROGIO LEVATI. 5 Vols. 8vo. Milan, 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 2*l*.

THE character of *Petrarch*, and the events of his life, are subjects which seem to have been nearly exhausted by the zeal and industry of the Abbé de Sade, whose "*Mémoires pour servir à la Vie de Petrarch*" have been familiarized to English readers by the abridged translation of Mrs. Dobson. The labours of the Abbé, however, did not entirely satisfy the Italians; who thought that he had been much too desirous to claim for France the merit of *Petrarch's* talents; who were not pleased with him for having suppressed several of *Petrarch's* most caustic remarks on the disposition of the French in general, and particularly on the manners of Avignon, at that time the residence of the Papal court; and who were offended also with the free manner in which he occasionally introduced comments on the degeneracy of Italy, and on its negligence about preserving memorials of its most distinguished men. *Beitinielli* and *Bandelli* have both endeavoured to delineate *Petrarch's* merits, and to pronounce his eulogy in the Italian language: but Professor AMBROGIO LEVATI, in the volumes before us, has attempted to raise a still grander monument to his memory. When he first commenced his undertaking, the Professor seems to have intended to write a novel, embodying historical facts, and giving forcible representations of the manners of the age in which

Petrarch

Petrarch lived: but, on farther consideration, he confined himself more strictly to an abstract of *Petrarch's* life, as it may be deduced from his letters and other writings. The whole is now comprehended in twelve books: of which the first is rather fictitious than historical, and the others are in fact a re-cast of the Abbé de Sade's memoirs: correcting some slight inaccuracies into which he had fallen, supplying some deficiencies, omitting some peculiarities to which we have just now adverted, and accommodating the whole to the taste of the Italians.

Petrarch's fame as a lyric poet has, we believe, uniformly maintained its supremacy in the estimation of his countrymen, who are doubtless best able to appreciate the felicities of his language: but in other nations his reputation has varied according to the variations of public taste. With us, at one time, he was idolized as the true model of elegance and sensibility; yet at another he was decried as a writer full of affectation and conceits, of strained thoughts, and artificial sentiments. In the present age, the estimation of his sonnets is more just, as far as tramontane judges may venture to form an opinion; and, while much that was once admired among us, and is still admired in Italy, is given up as harsh, far-fetched, and insipid, a large remainder is left which is regarded as the perfection of elegance, in the natural expressions of a cultivated understanding when put in motion by a warm and impassioned heart. His memory, too, will always be respected by scholars, while it is remembered that he was an enthusiastic lover of antient literature, a preserver of some of its most valuable remains, and a moralist who selected with great taste and embodied in his own productions the most striking thoughts and brilliant passages of the writers of antiquity. Such commendation of *Petrarch*, however, as a poet, a restorer of learning, or a moralist, will by no means satisfy the ardour of Professor LEVATI. The lover of Laura is, according to him, to be revered as 'a sage politician, who was consulted on the most perilous emergencies, and employed in embassies of the utmost difficulty;' as 'the greatest philosopher of modern times, who discovered many recondite truths, and who seems to have anticipated the existence of the Antipodes a century before the discovery of the new world;' and as 'a profound geographer, who, by facilitating the knowledge of the most remote and fertile countries of the world, contributed to the advancement of commerce and of the arts.' 'A man,' continues the Professor, 'of such noble exertions, and of such extraordinary attainments, ought not to be classed merely among our eminent lyric poets, though he surpassed them all in elegance, but should

should be placed in that rank of honour which is his due at the head of the Bacons, the Galileos, the Des Cartes, the Newtons, and all those other writers of modern times to whom he opened the track of real science.

It is true that *Petrarch* was consulted on some very critical occasions, and that he was employed in some embassies of moment: but that he was a sage politician is, to say the least, a matter rather questionable. His address to the commissioners, moreover, who were appointed to examine the state of affairs at Rome, shews that the value of his communications, when solicited, was not always in proportion to the importance of the case; and in his embassies he does not seem to have been the most successful of negotiators. His intimacy with *Rienzi*, and his enthusiasm on the first successes of that factious demagogue, evince that he had not the deepest insight into human character, nor any very just sentiments of liberty; and his acceptance of the splendid offers of *John Visconti* is a proof that his notions of liberty, whatever they were, could give way to his considerations of convenience, when the eulogizer of the spirit of the Gracchi and of the poverty of *Fabricius* consented to live in opulence as the pensioned retainer of one whom he regarded as a tyrannical usurper, and as an ambitious and unprincipled subverter of the independence of neighbouring states.

Professor LEVATI'S claims in favour of his hero's discovery of the Antipodes are founded on the following passages from his fifth and sixth sonnets:

"Nella stagion che il ciel rapido inchina
Versò occidente, e che il dì nostro vola
A gente che di là forse l'aspetta."

"Quando la sera scaccio il chiaro giorno,
E la tenebre nostre altrui fan alba."

We think that, by the same ingenuity, the learned Professor might have proved that *Virgil* was master of the knowledge of *Columbus*, for it would merely be necessary to adduce the ensuing lines:

"Illic, ut perhibent, aut intempesta silet nos
Semper, et obstita densantur nocte tenebræ
Aut redit à nobis Aurora, diemque reducit
Nosque ubi primus equis Oriens afflavit anhelis,
Illic sera rubens accendit lumina Vesper." *Geo. l. 24.*

Something more, we apprehend, will be required to satisfy any except Italian readers of *Petrarch's* profound geographical knowledge, and we cannot but suspect that the passage which

we have quoted, describing him as the precursor of Bacon and Newton in science, must sound ludicrous even in Italy.

The era in which *Petrarch* lived was indeed full of important events. In the course of it, the groundwork was laid for the constitution of the Germanic empire, and the Swiss confederation was established: — the glorious reign of Edward the Third exhibited a proud display of the power and valour of the English, but shewed in the event the futility of continental triumphs and conquests: — the reign of Charles the Wise restored France to her former consequence, and gave to it a stability which it had never before possessed: — the members of the Hanseatic league enjoyed a brilliant but transient importance, as the carriers from the east to the north and west of Europe: — the principal towns of the Low Countries were beginning to cultivate manufactures, and to extend a trade which was the source of a more durable grandeur: — the residence of the Popes at Avignon was secretly undermining their power by the shock which it gave to antient prejudices, while the weakness of the Emperor Charles the Fourth left to the states of Italy, and particularly to the city of Rome, an opportunity for insubordination and anarchy; — and Venice and Genoa were wasting the treasures which they had acquired by commerce in mutual hostilities, while the *Visconti* were by gradual encroachments forming that circle of territory which afterward constituted the duchy of Milan. Contemporaries are seldom able to appreciate the comparative importance of the occurrences which pass before their eyes: but many peculiarities in the character of *Petrarch* made him in a particular manner incapable of forming a just estimate. From an exquisite sensibility to those beauties with which nature has favoured Italy, in the genial quality of its atmosphere, the richness of its skies, and the elegance of its living forms, but still more from observing the precious relics of antiquity, and recollecting what Rome was in its days of grandeur, *Petrarch* was strongly imbued with the prejudice which would confine all that is good and great within the bounds of that country,

“ *Ch' Appenin parte, e 'l mar circonda, e 'l Alpe.*”

His letters to *Colonna* evince how exclusively he was attached to every thing that was Italian. Among the *barbarians* of France and the Low Countries, he was astonished at any appearance of civilization: — the beauty of his own grounds was at one time almost a matter of regret to him, because they were situated on the wrong side of the Alps; — and he wished for the return of the Popes to Rome, partly from

a superstitious notion, and in a great degree from the sentiment that the residence of the head of the church should be in the centre of the only civilized people. His vanity, too, had a considerable influence on his judgment of men. The attentions paid by Charles the Fourth to Laura made him entertain much higher notions of the character of that weak prince than he in any respect deserved; and the civilities of the *Visconti*s to him, though they did not entirely blind his judgment, had a considerable effect in qualifying and modifying his opinions of that family. The Golden Bull was passed without *Petrarch* having attached any considerable importance to it: the movements in Switzerland took place almost without attracting his notice; and, when he was in Ghent, instead of contemplating the mighty impulse given by commerce to society, or speculating on the influence which mercantile communities were gaining throughout Europe, his mind was occupied with classical reveries, and day-dreams about Julius Cæsar.

Petrarch's prose-compositions were very thoroughly sifted by the Abbé de Sade when he composed his memoirs; and we find nothing new, of an historical nature, in the work before us, directly concerning either the poet or his Laura: though Professor LEVATI speaks on many occasions in a very ostentatious manner, and as if he imagined that he was throwing great light on subjects before unexplored, or left in darkness. Thus, in one of the volumes, he introduces that part of *Petrarch's* dialogue with St. Augustine which relates to his love for Laura, and which is familiar to every person, as if it were a discovery of his own. We should therefore be merely wasting the attention of our readers, if we affected to give them any passages of *Petrarch's* life or correspondence as a translation from the present volumes, when the whole is already before them in Mrs. Dobson's elegant (though sometimes incorrect) translation of *De Sade*.

We set a much higher value, however, on the dissertations and sketches which the Professor has interspersed through his work, relating to the manners and customs of the age in which *Petrarch* lived, the state of the arts and sciences, and that of commerce, particularly in the Italian republics: in the course of which papers, besides some original reflections, Signor LEVATI has incorporated several very animated descriptions and valuable observations from *Sismondi* and other historians. In particular, the sketches of the University of Paris, and of the Regatta and festival of Sta. Maria at Venice, are executed with remarkable spirit: but we observe more of this sort of picturesque description and fictitious narrative in the first

first than in any of the subsequent books; and, as proofs of the Professor's excellence in this kind of composition, we extract from that book his accounts of the conversion of one of the Albigenses, and of the terrible "*Vade in pace*." They are both very characteristic of the manners and usages of the monastic institutions then in vogue in Europe; and we are happy in being able to close our comments on this work, in the course of which we have been obliged to animadvert on pretensions and assumptions which seemed to us groundless, by such favourable specimens of the author's merit:

In a square close to the church, a large pile of wood was raised, the most effectual argument which the Inquisition could devise for converting the heretic; and the gates, which were thrown wide open, delighted the multitude, who are always greedy of wonders and of strange sights. At length, the procession moved forwards with solemn steps and long array. In the van were the monks, whose office it was not to instruct with Christian charity, but with all due formality to murder those of their brethren to whom the truth was not revealed: in the rear stalked along the Chief Inquisitor; and at some distance one of the Albigenses followed barefooted. The Chief mounted a lofty pulpit; the latter stood upright on the ground, like a criminal before his judge. After some prayers, the Inquisitor began to discourse with the heretic; endeavouring to prove to him that God and not the devil had been his Creator; and that marriage was an excellent institution, appointed by God himself to increase and multiply the species, and to retrieve the world from the ruin in which it was involved by the fall of the rebellious angels. Having shewn all this by extracts from Holy Writ, and by the words of St. Paul, he exclaimed, "And do you not yield to all these authorities of God and of his apostle? The furnace and the punishments that await you stare you in the face." — "This is a very strange sort of argument," whispered *Petrarch* to *Colonna*; "either believe as we believe, or we will burn you alive. Who can resist such awful reasoning?"

"Before we consign you to the flames," continued the Inquisitor, "I wish to be allowed a farther discussion with you on the resurrection of the dead and the day of judgment; matters which you deny." These truths he enforced by passages from Scripture and from the Fathers, and then proceeded; "Before that fire shall consume your flesh to ashes, as it shall do unless you retract, I would once more ask why you abjure that sacrament which has been pronounced good and holy by God himself; preferring to believe that your soul has sprung from those spirits who fell from heaven to earth, and were nine days suffering that dismal downfall. Such a lineage is to me incomprehensible, and I would sooner see you dragged to and gibbeted on a gallows than give any credit to this your imposture." — The poor Albigensis shivered from head to foot while he listened to the menaces of the Inquisitor, and

dreaded every moment that the mob around would lay hands on him and cast him on the pile which was blazing in the adjacent square. As soon as the Inquisitor had finished his discourse, and the deep silence which reigned throughout the church seemed to call on the Albigensis for a solemn abjuration, he thus spoke: "Reverend father, pledge to me your word that I shall not be either burned or gibbeted, or mal-treated, and I submit myself to every other chastisement which it shall seem good to you to inflict: provided that you will neither rack me, nor torture me, nor cover me with infamy, I will reveal all the secrets of my party." A general cry from the surrounding crowd assured him of pardon and protection, and rescued him from that horrible state of doubt and despair with which he had been before overwhelmed. He then kneeled down before the Inquisitor, who gave him absolution, and pronounced his benediction; saying, "May God bestow on thee grace to be one in the blessed number of those labourers whom he has hired into his vineyard, and who though last called shall have the same reward with the first; and that reward you will doubtless gain, if you adhere henceforwards as steadfastly to the true faith, as you have hitherto maintained your vain delusions: but it is right always to distrust penitents converted by fear, particularly when they have been the leaders of their sect. There is need of a powerful medicine to extract all the poison; and it becomes you forthwith to prove by your works the sincerity of your conversion:—you must glow with zeal for the persecution of heresy. To those who suffer for righteousness' sake, God promises the joys of paradise, as the Pope assures us, and as the Gospel announces." After the conversion of the Albigensis, a solemn mass was performed, and a hymn was sung in thanksgiving to the Almighty: when the Inquisitor and the Dominicans withdrew to their monastery, to hear the charges of the convert against his former associates. *Petrarch* and *Colonna*, as they returned to their inn, reasoned together on this new court of inquisition, which the precepts of the Gospel discountenance while they prohibit all bodily punishment to heretics; merely enjoining that such persons, after the first and second admonition, if these prove unsuccessful, shall be rejected."

Colonna and his friend had intended to stay several days at Toulouse: but a tragical event, which occurred in the monastery of the predicator friars, afflicted them deeply, and induced them to quit a city, in which they were astonished to find chivalrous habits and an attachment to poetry combined with the most cruel fanaticism. In this monastery lived a young and lively monk, named *Agostino*, whose skill in music enabled him to play some most delightful airs on the organ, with which, on religious festivals, he accompanied the pious psalmody. The Superior accordingly relaxed in some degree the severity of the usual discipline, and permitted this youth occasionally to go out of the monastery for the purpose of perfecting himself in this elegant accomplishment; and *Agostino*, by his frequent visits to the house of his music-master, became intimate with one of his daughters, to whom, at the request

quest

quest of the father himself, he gave a few lessons on the harp. A young man who had an attachment to this damsel became jealous of the monk, because such opportunities of familiar intercourse were allowed to him while he himself could only gratify his curiosity by watching the steps of his beloved as she walked to church, or to the theatres. At length, he plotted a dark scheme against his imagined rival; and after some time, when the young lady happened to be indisposed, he suborned the principal physician in the town, with whom he was on intimate terms, to declare when called in to give his advice that it was a case of pregnancy. The father was fired with indignation, and, without inquiring into the reality of the imputation, immediately visited the Superior, and charged the monk with the deed. The latter, in utter astonishment, appeared in the presence of the incensed prior, and maintained his innocence without shrinking; honestly confessing that he admired the beauty of this fair damsel, but asserting that he was entirely guiltless not only of any action but of any expression bordering on vice; and asseverating that the very thought of such a prostitution of religion, of such an act of treason to the rights of friendship and hospitality, filled his mind with horror. The Prior made no reply, but, darting on the monk a penetrating and freezing glance, he ordered him to retire to his cell and there await the punishment which he deserved. A cold chill ran through the blood of the poor youth; who, pale and trembling, with a confused vision before his eyes, sank down senseless on his pallet.

In the mean time, the Superior assembled all the members of the convent, related to them the particulars of the charge, and maintained that one who had thus dared to violate his vows merited condign punishment. Those whose rank and age qualified them to pronounce their judgment answered that the delinquent ought to be closed in the *Vade in pace*, that subterraneous prison in which fated culprits were doomed to expire. No consideration of Agostino's youth, of his amiable manners, and of his elegant accomplishments, could touch their unfeeling hearts with pity. The monks rushed to his cell, where he had scarcely recovered the full use of his senses, and dragged him again into the presence of the Superior, who in a loud voice pronounced the sentence: *Vade in pace*. Agostino was scarcely yet in the possession of his faculties, but, when he heard those awful words, he exclaimed in a phrenzy: — "What — without inquiry, without trial, am I, who am innocent, condemned to a den of darkness, there to be buried alive, and to suffer an existence worse than a thousand deaths? and are ye the ministers of a merciful God? the chosen of a meek Redeemer? Do you call yourselves my brethren, you who are my executioners? Blasphemous wretches —" More he would have said, but the monks thundered forth a psalm, covered his face with a black veil, tied his hands, and commenced the horrible procession which was to conduct him to a living sepulchre. One monk went before the others, carrying a cross wrapped in mourning; the rest followed, chanting in a deep and dismal tone the *De profundis*: in the middle was the miserable Agostino; and the Prior walked

last in the funeral procession. In this order the monks descended the dark subterraneous passages of the monastery, and arrived at the mouth of a deep vault, just wide enough to admit a single body, from which not only the light of day but every breath of healthful atmosphere was excluded. An iron portal barred the access, above which was a small aperture, where they placed the pittance of bread and water with which the poor wretch when deposited beneath was for a time to be supported. The procession advanced towards this abyss of death, when the Prior seized the hand of *Agostino*, who stood like a victim at the altar, and, with the assistance of the other monks, hurled him downwards, closing over him the dismal portal. *Agostino* heard the grating of the rusty hinges, and the shutting of that door which to him would be shut for ever. After some few days had elapsed, in a fit of phrenzy he dashed his head against the wall; his eyeballs burst from their sockets, and his brains from his skull; and his body lay weltering in his blood, a pitiable spectacle to the monks who ran in to witness the calamity. — *Colonna*, as soon as he heard of this dismal catastrophe, resolved on quitting the town immediately, and *Petrarch* indignantly exclaimed in the words of Virgil,

“ *Heu! fuge crudeles terras, fuge litus avarum!* ”

ART. VII. *Biographie Universelle, &c.; i. e. Universal Biography, Antient and Modern.* By a Society of Men of Letters. Vols. XXI—XXVIII. 8vo. Paris. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

IN the Appendix to our xciiid volume, pp. 529—594., we noticed the preceding ten volumes of this extensive and comprehensive biographicon; and we shall now pursue the same plan of selecting from each volume some one life which has escaped the record of our native dictionaries of persons.

Vol. XXI.—*Hroswitha*, a nun of the abbey of Gandersheim, was born in Saxony, and flourished during the eleventh century under the reign of Otho II., who employed her to write the funeral oration of his father. No other particulars of her life are known, but that she composed in Latin many religious books, which were collected in one folio volume, printed at Nuremberg in 1501. These are the titles of them. 1. Six sacred dramas; *Gallicanus*, a martyr under Julian; *Agape and Irene*, martyrs under Dioclesian; *Callimachus*, who was resuscitated by Saint John; *Maria*, a niece of the hermit Abraham; *Paphnutius*, or the conversion of the courtesan Thais; and, lastly, the martyrdom of Faith, Hope, and Charity. The style of Terence is imitated in these plays. 2. *Historia Nativitatis*, in Latin hexameters. 3. *Historia Adscensionis*, in the like metre. 4. *Passio sancti Gangolfi*, in elegiac verse. 5. *Passio sancti Pelagii*. 6. *Lapsus et Conversio Theophili*. 7. *De Conversione Desperati*. 8. *Panegyris Othonum*. 9. *De Constructione*,

Instructiones, primordiisq; ad fundatoribus cœnobii Gandersheimensis. This book, which is a treatise on the education of women, is a valuable work.

The life of *Hyder Aly*, by *M. Langlès*, deserves consultation for its extensive historical details, and for the interspersed criticisms on English writers. — In the memoir of *Hyde* the *Orientalist*, it is lamented that manuscripts of this admirable scholar are suffered to remain unprinted in the Oxford libraries.

Vol. XXII. — *KAUFFMAN, Mary Anne Angelica Catharine*, was born at Coire, in Switzerland, in the month of October, 1741. *John Joseph Kauffman*, her father, was a moderate painter, but accustomed his daughter very early to assist in the execution of his works: he removed to Morbegno, where he lived until 1752, and thence to Como. It was here that Angelica's proficiency first attracted the public attention; and the Bishop *Nevroni* sat to her for his portrait when she was only twelve years of age. The success of this essay induced many of the inhabitants to try the young artist, and it became quite a fashion at Como to be painted by her. Among others, *Rinaldo* of Este, the Governor of Milan, sat to her, and declared himself her protector. Her father having been invited to Constance by Cardinal *Roth*, he too was portrayed by Angelica: but, as she had a fine voice and excelled in music, several of her friends advised her to drop painting, and to go on the stage. Her delicacy rather than her talent declined this step, and she made a portrait of herself, solicited by the rival Muses of Painting and Melody. In 1763, she went to Rome to perfect herself in the art, and acquired there a classical taste. In 1765, she was resident at Venice, where she became acquainted with an English lady, (here called *Vervort*,) who induced her to visit London; where she arrived on the 22d of June, 1766. Sir *Joshua Reynolds* here shewed a liberal disposition to patronize Angelica, sat to her for his likeness, and complimented her in terms which seemed rather to announce the warmth of a lover than the satisfaction of an artist. He obtained for her also the patronage of the Princess of Brunswick, who was painted in 1767. Miss *Kauffman* was not fond of painting portraits, but preferred to work for engravers, and executed for the employers of *Bartolozzi* many agreeable pictures. She occasionally used the *burin* herself, as about sixty plates attest; and nearly six hundred have been modelled on her paintings.

In the midst of these successes, an unfortunate attachment damped her felicity. A handsome man, of noble manners, made his appearance in London, who announced himself as a Swedish gentleman of title by the name of *Frederic Count Horn*; and he courted and married Angelica. It was soon discovered that he was an adventurer, who hoped to subsist on the proceeds of her industry; who made away with the property which she had acquired; and who, when he had reduced her to poverty, consented to a deed of separation, which was executed February 10. 1768.

She then resumed her habits of industry, and again surrounded herself with the comforts of life. She was admitted into the list of royal academicians, and was celebrated in the verses of *Klopstock* and *Gesner*, to whom she sent in return some works of her pencil. The pretended Count *Horn* having died, Angelica married a Venetian painter named *Zucchi*, July 14, 1781. With this husband she returned to Italy by way of Ostend, passed some time at Venice, (where she painted the death of *Leonardo da Vinci*), and finally settled at Rome. There she painted for Joseph the Second the triumphal return of Herman from his victory over the legions of Varus. She had recently lost her second husband, but was living when the French occupied Rome in 1796, and received from General *Despinasse* a letter of protection. She died on the 5th of November, 1807, of a decline, and was buried in the church of *Saint Andrea delle Fratte*; her funeral obsequies, which were pompous, being attended by the artists and academicians. *Giuseppe dei Rossi* published her life in Italian, at Florence, in 1810.

The life of *Kazwiny*, the Arabian Pliny, deserves notice for oriental research, as do many other lives in this volume.

Vol. XXIII. — *LABRADOR, Juan*, a Spanish painter of the school of Seville, was born in Estremadura early in the sixteenth century. He was a pupil of *Morales* surnamed *el Divino*, but he only studied still life, and was especially remarked for his admirable representation of flowers. In the palace of the king of Spain are preserved two flower-pieces which he painted in competition with other artists, and which by universal consent won the prize. The natural beauty of the colouring, the picturesque grouping of the flowers, the delicacy of the leaves and petals, the transparency of the dew-drops, the relief of the blossoms and insects, and the exquisite finish of the whole, place them among the triumphs of the pencil. *Labrador* also painted fruits, perspectives, utensils, and ocular deceptions of various kinds, which are valued for exquisite execution. He died at Madrid, in 1609, at a very advanced age.

Vol. XXIV. — *LOIZEROLLES, John Simon Aved de*, king's counsellor, and lieutenant-general of the bailiwick of the artillery at the arsenal of Paris, was born in that city during the year 1733. Being arrested in 1793, he was conducted with his son to the prison of Saint Lazare. On the 2d of July, 1794, two days before the overthrow of *Robespierre*, the usher of the revolutionary tribunal came to the prison with a list of victims, and called for *Loizerolles, junior*. The young man was asleep; and the father, not hesitating to sacrifice his own life to the safety of his son, answered to the name, was conducted to the conciergerie, and appeared next morning at the audience. The secretary, supposing only some error of designation, changed the Christian name and the age, and adapted the act of accusation to the old man, who was accordingly led to the scaffold without objecting to the mistake which had been superintended; and there was

commemorated his heroic sacrifice. Next day, *Robespierre's* fall, and the young man was set at liberty.

Vol. XXV. — This volume, which alphabetically includes the name *Louis*, is decorated with a numerous series of engraved portraits of the kings of France. The life of *Louis XV.* by *Lally-Tolendal*, forms a conspicuous and eloquent ornament of this collection of biographies; but it is somewhat too extensive for the proportionate length of the other articles. We shall prefer to extract a shorter.

LUBIENETSKI, Theodora, a painter and engraver, was born at Cracow, in 1653, of a noble family allied to the royal house of Legzinski. He studied at Hamburg, and learnt drawing there from *Jurria Stur*, who recommended him to go into Holland and place himself under *Lairesse*. — *Lubienetski* afterward visited Italy, where he was well received at the court of Tuscany, and was made chamberlain to the Grand Duke. He then returned to the north, and enjoyed the same preferment under the elector of Brandenburg at Berlin. Several of the historical paintings which he executed there are preserved in the royal palaces. He also finished the drawings for the sculptured masks which decorate the court of the arsenal, and eight of them have been engraved; but the complete publication was interrupted, and afterward resumed by *Rode*. *Lubienetski* etched various imaginary landscapes, which are much esteemed. He was a Socinian, and wrote a treatise offensive to the orthodox, which was prosecuted, and sentenced to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. This affront induced him to relinquish his situation at Berlin, and to retire in 1706 to his original place of residence in Poland, where he died in 1720.

Vol. XXVI. — *MARAI, Ebn Joussouf Almok Dessi*, is the author of a history of the caliphs and sultans who have reigned in Egypt. *Reiske* undertook a German translation of this work, which was completed by his brother. *Marai* was of the party of *Mustapha*, a deposed sultan, and was put to death by the successor *Othman the Second*, in 1619.

Vol. XXVII. — We are surprised to find no article in this volume to the memory of *Louis Martineau*, the first native French printer, and a man who has deserved so well of early literature.

MARTINEZ, Henrique, a Mexican engineer, was educated in Spain, where he made so rapid a progress in mathematics, hydraulics, and geography, that the king granted him the title of cosmographer royal. He then in 1607 returned to Mexico, and was intrusted by the Marquis of Salinas, the viceroy, with the drainage of the superfluous waters from the lake of Mexico. He accordingly drew the plan of the *Desagua de Huachuco*, which is a subterraneous drain adapted to lessen the danger of inundation. It was begun on the 23d of November, 1607, and the viceroy gave the

the first stroke of the pick-axe. Fifteen thousand Indians were employed during eleven months in this important enterprise: but the subterraneous gallery was not made on a scale sufficiently large for the vast abundance of waters which at certain seasons descend into the lake of Mexico, and inundations still continued to be very troublesome. The plan of *Martinez* was therefore censured by his rivals; and he himself was thrown for some months into prison in 1629, because the waters overflowed the streets of Mexico. The canal now became choaked, and the floods lasted nearly five years: but in 1634 some new alterations were again tolerably successful. *Martinez* printed at Mexico a treatise on trigonometry, and died there in the midst of labours which he had not time to complete according to his own views.*

Vol. XXVIII.—To give an idea of the meritorious abundance of the oriental biographies, which are executed with admirable brevity and research, we will observe that eighteen persons named *Melik* have separate articles in this volume; namely, *Melik Arslan*, the thirteenth sultan of the Seljookian dynasty of Persia: *Melik Shah I.*, the third sultan of the same dynasty; *Melik Shah II.*, his nephew; *Melik el Adel*, sultan of Egypt and Damascus; *Melik el Adel Saifeddyn Abobeker II.*, his grandson; *Melik el Afdhal*, the eldest son of the great Saladin; *Melik el Aschraf*, the second king of Persia of the Jooban dynasty; *Melik el Dhaher*; *Melik el Kamel*, sultan of Egypt; his nephew, of the same name; *Melik el Mansoor*; *Melik el Moadham*, the brother of Saladin; another of the same name; *Melik el Nassar*; *Melik el Moadham*, the ninth sultan of Egypt; *Melik el Modhaffer*; *Melik el Moerz*; and *Melik el Mowayed*. This familiarity with remote history does honour to the author's knowledge of the world.

Mesihi, a Turkish poet, was contemporary with Soliman I., and was reckoned among the seven stars of poetry, whose names were hung up in golden letters before the temple of Mecca. In the Vatican library, among the manuscripts of *Pietro della Valle*, are preserved the works of this poet. *Abdul Cufi*, in his book intitled *Teskiret Oschoara*, speaks of three hundred Turkish poets who had flourished since the year 1359 of the Christian æra. Sir William Jones translated an Idyl, beginning with the words

“Hear how the nightingales on every spray,”
and our readers may like to compare the French translation here given of the same poem.

Le doux printemps renaît ; sous le nouveau feuillage,
Le Rossignol déjà fait entendre ses chants ;

J'écoute

*J'écoute ses leçons, je comprends son langage ;
 Voici ce qu'il répète aux heureux Musulmans :
 Jouissez : la mélancolie
 N'est qu'un fléau qu'il faut bannir ;
 Le doux printemps renait ; mais celui de la vie
 Fuit pour ne jamais revenir.*

*Le plus brillant émail a paré nos prairies ;
 Sur leur sein l'arc-en-ciel a jété ses couleurs,
 Et déjà le rosier sur ses tiges fleuries
 Enivre tous nos sens de ses douces odeurs :
 Jouissez : la mélancolie
 N'est qu'un fléau, &c.*

*Savourez ces bienfaits sans croire à leur durée,
 Le vrai sage est celui qui sait le prix du temps ;
 Pour la loi du destin la vie est mesurée,
 Et peut ne pas remplir l'espace d'un printemps.
 Jouissez : la mélancolie
 N'est qu'un fléau, &c.*

*De roses et de lis un Dieu forma les belles ;
 Elles on ont, hélas ! l'éclat et le destin.
 Ces merveilles d'un jour se ressemblent entre elles ;
 Les belles et les fleurs ne brillent qu'un matin :
 Jouissez, &c.*

*De la reine des fleurs la beauté s'est flétrie ;
 Elle était à mourir condamnée en naissant ;
 Un rayon du soleil, quelques gouttes de pluie,
 L'ont soudain fait rentrer dans le sein du néant :
 Jouissez, &c.*

*La carrière est ouverte, et veut être remplie ;
 Buvez, aimez, goûtez sur tout un doux repos ;
 Tout en la méprisant embellissez la vie ;
 Ignorez les chagrins, et mourez à propos.
 Jouissez, &c.*

' S.—Y.' (DE SALABERRY.)

We shall take pleasure in continuing to notice this valuable work as the successive volumes reach us, for it offers a copious harvest of supplemental materials to the extant biographical dictionaries of this and other countries. Yet the importer of this additional information should not be content with mere translation, because abridgment would be frequently expedient ; as the local importance of French lives is greater on the other than on this side of the Channel, and as some of the critical remarks have obviously been influenced by political considerations not necessarily operative in Great Britain.

ANN. VII. Petits Historique des Principaux Evénements, &c.
 An Historical Epitome of the principal Events, Political
 and Military, which brought on the Spanish Revolution. By
 M. LOUIS JULLIAN. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by
 Treuttel and Würtz. Price 9s.

THE great Revolution which took place at the beginning of 1820 in the government of the Spanish peninsula, and which a few months afterward was so miserably parodied at Naples and so closely imitated at Lisbon, has been contemplated by some persons as the effect of military intrigue, rather than as the result of rooted national opinion. To resolve this question, by personal observation on the spot, was the motive of M. JULLIAN's trip from Paris to Madrid: where he spent his time in conversing with many party-leaders, and in collecting such scattered notices as printed papers could supply, concerning the steps which led to so important a change. The result of this inquisitive research is here thrown together in the form of an historical narrative.

The conspiracy of *Porlier*, known in Spain by the name of *Marquesito*, was one of the earliest symptoms of a latent revolutionary spirit. This General, who had been well received by Ferdinand when that monarch returned to Spain in 1814, was much hurt at the king's refusal to ratify and proclaim the constitution settled by the Cortes at Cadiz in 1812; and he consequently wrote in terms expressive of bitter dissatisfaction to his brother-in-law, Count *Toreno*, and consulted him about the means of re-establishing liberty in Spain. His letter being intercepted by the government, *Porlier* was arrested, and placed in confinement at San-Antonio in Galicia: but a certain liberty of access was granted to his friends at the prison; the captain-general of the province, named *Lacy*, being secretly a friend to the liberal principles. As the offence of *Porlier* had not been heavy, he obtained permission to go and drink the mineral waters; and no sooner was he at large than he published, on the 21st of September, 1815, a manifesto addressed to the nation, and avowed by the junta of Galicia, which called on the Spaniards to confederate every where for the purpose of carrying into execution the representative system proposed by the Cortes at Seville and Cadiz. This manifesto gave a great impulse to the public mind, and founded the rallying point of the Liberals: but the garrison of Saint-Jago considered it as seditious, for they were exhorted so to do by the archbishop, and by an Italian commandant named *Perez*, whom the ecclesiastics could influence; and they sent a detachment of sixty men to arrest *Porlier*. He consequently was again seized, thrown into the dungeons

dungeons of the Inquisition, and finally executed. A French translation of this manifesto, which in style resembles the eloquence of Count *Torres*, occurs in the Appendix. *Don* *Olivero*, named by Ferdinand to be the captain-general of Andalusia, was the next military man who lent aid to the patriotic cause; but he conducted himself with a degree of duplicity, which in the north would be deemed perfidious. He assumed the alarmist, affected to denounce conspiracies among his officers against the government, and thus removed from his corps the more staunch royalists. He then privately reconciled himself with *Lacy*, accepted an initiation into the patriotic clubs, and promised his public co-operation at the first favourable moment.

Attempts were successfully made at Valencia to shake the fidelity of the king's troops. *Elio* commanded there, who on the return of Ferdinand had exhorted him to reign after the manner of his ancestors; and who filled the public prisons of the city and of the Inquisition with victims. Even the convents were transformed into dungeons, and scarcely sufficed to contain the number of persons apprehended. *Elio* fulfilled with the utmost severity the orders which he received from the court; and he inspired so much abhorrence, that a small number of friends of liberty, who were not yet under arrest, entered into a conspiracy to get rid of him. His spies having informed him of the meeting, he boldly went thither in person: when the conspirators no sooner saw him appear, than they took up arms in their own defence. A scuffle ensued, during which *Elio* killed with his own hand Colonel *Vidal*, who was at the head of the plot; and the other accomplices being seized, were delivered over to a military tribunal, and condemned to death. Among the victims was *Beltran de Lys*, a son of one of the richest bankers in Spain, and wholly ignorant of the scheme to assassinate *Elio*. This fine young man, hardly eighteen years old, marched to execution with admirable calmness; declining with dignity, but without ostentation, the services of a priest who offered to accompany him. On his approach to the scaffold, he perceived the dead body of *Vidal*, and observed that the martyrs of liberty would find avengers. The corpses of the sufferers were exposed for several hours to the gaze of the multitude.

The escape of *Kanhalen* from the prison of Madrid forms an interesting anecdote; and the heroic death of *Alcedo*, claiming to his soldiers, — "On, my boys, on, be not mind my mortal remains: long live Spanish liberty!" is frequently narrated.

The consequence was that a detachment was sent into the

The work closes with a critique on the Spanish constitution, which the author wishes to assimilate to that of France. Whatever arguments may exist in favour of dividing parliament into two houses, perhaps the structure of the Spanish representative body is superior to that of the French. In the first place, being founded on universal suffrage, it necessarily involves the allegiance of the entire community; which in moments of ferment might else separate into civil warfare. — In the second place, as no classes are excluded, it is not probable that any one class of the people will be oppressed by the legislature. In England, many classes are disqualified from voting who suffer from such taxes as those on porter, sugar, teas, tobacco, starch, candles, vinegar, glass, &c., and who may be said to have no representatives to advocate their interests. In Sparta, where the Helots were excluded from suffrage, the entire class was systematically oppressed: in France, where suffrage was not conferred until twenty-five years of age, the conscriptions were made to weigh exclusively on non-voters; and in America, where Negroes do not vote, their civil condition again is miserably defective. — In the third place, the Spanish legislative body, being chosen by successive delegations, and being a graduated representation, conciliates by universal suffrage the especial ascendancy of the educated classes: for the elected consist of a higher sort of people than the voters; and, as the individuals of this order cannot foretell their own appointment, there can be no previous canvass for the ultimate representative, — no time or opportunity for intrigue. — In the fourth place, the Spanish plan of election is easily executed by the people themselves; and hence it has been found of more convenient proclamation; at Naples, at Turin, and in Greece, than any other extant pattern of a constitution. These reasons may perhaps serve to justify the Spaniards against M. JULLIAN, in adhering for the present to the form decreed by the Cortes.

ART. IX. *Sur l'Administration de la Loi Criminelle, &c.; i. c.*
 On the Administration of the Criminal Law in England, and on the Spirit of the English Government. By M. COTTE, Counsellor of the Royal Court of Paris, &c. &c. 8vo. Paris, 1820.

To the remarks of an intelligent and liberal-minded foreigner on our institutions and manners we must always be disposed to attend, not only as they furnish us with the means of estimating the rank which we hold with other nations, but also as they convey

convey the sentiments of an impartial observer on many topics, in the consideration of which party-feeling or national prejudices but too frequently affect the judgment of a native. It was therefore with considerable curiosity and interest that we sat down to the perusal of M. COTTU's work on the administration of our system of criminal law; and how far it is qualified to fulfil such expectations, we shall now proceed to state.

M. COTTU was commissioned by the French government to make a visit to England for the purpose of observing our system of trial by jury, and examining whether it would be expedient to adopt the same mode of proceeding in France. He soon found, however, that our trial by jury was so intimately connected with other branches of our constitutional law, and so interwoven with other judicial proceedings, that, instead of confining his attention to that one object, it would be necessary for him not only to study our system of constitutional policy, but also to enter rather minutely into the forms of our legal proceedings. In undertaking this examination, no one could have possessed greater advantages than this gentleman: who, having been furnished with letters to the Marquis of Lansdown, was introduced by him to Mr. Scarlett, the eminent barrister who leads the Northern Circuit; the progress of which M. COTTU resolved to follow, for the purpose of becoming acquainted with the proceedings of our criminal courts. He was likewise recommended by our own government to the attention of the two Judges appointed to that circuit; and by the favour of Mr. Scarlett he became intimate with all the most able barristers whom he accompanied. Indeed, in his preface he informs us that his manuscript was submitted to the perusal of one of his professional friends, and ultimately to Mr. Scarlett, who supplied him with a few notes on the spirit of the English constitution.— This assertion has puzzled us much: for, whatever may be the general merits of the book, it is impossible that the youngest lawyer could glance his eye over its pages without perceiving numerous blunders, too gross not to strike the dullest apprehension. We do not mention these mistakes as detracting materially from the merit of the author, because it would be most unreasonable to expect from a foreigner an accurate account of all the technical niceties of our law: but we notice them as proving either that M. COTTU has submitted only a portion of his treatise to the judgment of his legal friends, or that they on whom he relied have done him great injustice by so cursory an examination of it. It is, in fact, very unaccountable how such errors could have originally

also occurred; because, from the style of the volume; and from the nature of the information which it conveys, we feel persuaded that the author collected his materials chiefly from oral communication; more especially as he nowhere mentions the particular sources from which he derived them. In the prosecution of his inquiries, M. COTTU was led to consider the jurisdiction of our justices of the peace, — the institution of the grand and petty jury, — the proceedings in civil causes, — the character and occupations of our Judges and advocates, — the general spirit of our constitution, — the mode of electing members of parliament, — the nature of the House of Peers both in its legislative and its judicial capacity, — the influence of our constitution on our manners, — the obstacles which prevent the adoption of our system of legislation in France, — and, lastly, the principal changes which it will be possible to effect in that country with regard to the trial by jury.

Of course, a foreigner's account of the mode in which our judicial proceedings are carried on can possess but little interest even for those among us who study the law as a profession; and we shall therefore apply our observations almost exclusively to that portion of the volume before us which treats of our constitution, our manners, and the policy of our laws. In the first place, however, we shall attempt to correct some of those mistakes to which we have alluded; and which, though perhaps insignificant in themselves, give the work a character of incorrectness, and induce a suspicion that the writer may possibly have been misinformed on topics of weightier moment.

The first error which we have noticed is of some importance. According to M. COTTU, if a criminal accused of high treason peremptorily challenges a greater number of jurors than the law allows, he incurs the penalty of the *peine forte et dure*, a species of torture which is supposed to have been known to our law, and which, according to M. COTTU, has not yet been abolished. (Note, p. 82.) Now it is doubtful whether this punishment was ever recognized by the common law of England; (see Lord Hale's History, P. C. ii. 321.; 2 Inst. p. 179., and Barrington's Observations on Ancient Stat. fifth edition, p. 82.) and at all events it was abolished by an act passed in the eleventh year of the late king.

In two or three instances, the author has mistaken the law relative to bringing writs of error. Speaking of this practice in criminal cases, he says, 'These writs are granted by the Attorney-General, and cannot be refused.' (P. 117.) This is very incorrect when applied, as it is, to all criminal proceedings.

proceedings without exception. A writ of error cannot issue without the fiat of the Attorney-general, or an express warrant from the King; which in cases of treason and felony are not mere matters of course. In offences of an inferior degree, indeed, the writ is not grantable *ex gratia* merely. (Stam. Crim. Pl. 352.) In treating of the writ of error in civil proceedings, the cause is said to be remitted to the consideration of the court, which has sent it down to be tried at *Nisi Prius*. When the writ of error is brought for some matter of law, which is the author's meaning, this can never be; for by that proceeding the cause is invariably carried before a higher tribunal than the court in which the action was brought; as, for instance, from the Common Pleas to the King's Bench, and from the King's Bench to the Exchequer Chamber or the House of Lords.

It is surprising that any person, who has even in the most superficial manner studied our system of judicial polity, should fall into so remarkable an error as to suppose that our Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Courts have their origin in our old feudal institutions. 'In general,' says M. CORTU, 'these inferior courts are viewed with an unfavourable eye in England, as the shapeless relics of feudal government, and as deplorable exceptions from the general mode of trial by jury; which is regarded by the English of all classes, and of all opinions, as the palladium of their liberty.' (P. 138.) So far from these courts being in any degree of a feudal origin, or connected with feudal usages, they were established in direct opposition both to the principles and the practice of the feudists; and they arise out of, and are governed by, the rules of the civil and the canon law. The very reverse of the author's statement is the truth; for the institution of the trial by jury is itself a relic of feudal customs, or at all events is to be ascribed to the same northern origin.

We have another slight mistake to mention, with regard to the law of libel. According to M. CORTU, p. 218., it is necessary in prosecutions for libel, where proof of the purchase of the libellous book is required, that there should be *two* witnesses to the purchase. Any news-paper-report might have enabled him to correct this error. — There are, we have no doubt, if the volume be scrupulously and carefully examined, other instances of incorrectness: but those which we have already pointed out may serve to shew that the contents are not to be entirely taken on trust.

It appears to us that the author has by no means formed a correct estimate of the spirit of our penal laws. In his idea, we are the mildest and most merciful people on the face of the

earth; while in fact there is no country in Europe in which life is extinguished with such prodigality. It is in vain that M. Corru endeavours to soften down the harshness of our criminal proceedings, by telling us that the accused invariably commands the sympathy of the court and of the audience. This idea is certainly very much exaggerated. We can scarcely recognize, in the following romantic picture, the features of an English court of justice.

It is a consequence of all the facts which I have detailed, that the English tribunals possess an aspect of impartiality and mildness which, it must be confessed, our own are far from offering to the eyes of a stranger. Every thing in England breathes indulgence and kindness. The Judge appears like a father in the midst of his family, engaged in trying one of his own children. His aspect has nothing terrifying in it. According to antient custom, his desk is covered with flowers, as well as that of the clerk of the arraigns. The sheriff too, and the other officers of the court, each carry about with them a bouquet of flowers. The Judge himself, with extraordinary condescension, suffers his judgment-seat to be partaken by the numerous spectators who surround him; and among whom may be recognized the most beautiful women of the county, the sisters, wives, or daughters of the grand-jurymen; who, drawn thither by the festivals to which the assizes give rise, consider it as their duty or their pleasure to form a portion of the audience. They make their appearance in the most elegant morning-dresses; and it is a curious spectacle to see the venerable head of the Judge, covered with his vast wig, towering over the youthful heads of the ladies, adorned with all the graces of nature and all the most seducing efforts of art.' (P. 109.)

Then, after a few observations on the comparative severity of the criminal proceedings in France, where the Judges seem to consider it as rather an honour than a duty to procure a conviction, the author proceeds:

It follows from this organization of the English tribunals, that they are far from offering the same dramatic interest as ours. Among them, the accused has no part to play; and his hat, which is hung on a peg, would make a very good representative for him. The public interest is not excited by a view of the criminal, who is placed in such a manner as to turn his back on the spectators; nor by the progress of the evidence; nor by the resistance of the accused; nor by the efforts made by the Judge to elicit the truth. There exists no contest between the accuser and the accused; and indeed the latter has all the appearance of a man, who, without anxiety, suffers his life to be the object of dispute between his own and the adverse counsel. Neither the sound of his voice becoming more faint and feeble in proportion as the proofs of his guilt accumulate on his head, nor the increasing paleness of his features, nor his sister covering her face, nor the terrifying silence

of discovered and convicted guilt; awakens the feelings of the spectators, or excites in their minds the compassion, the horror, the vengeance, and all the violent feelings to which our trials give birth. In England, every thing is calm and cold; — the counsel, the jury, the judges, the public, and even the prisoner himself, who is apprized by no one of the danger which he is encountering, and of the force of the collected evidence against him. (P. 110.)

For our own part, we can see nothing amiable in the attendance of young and pure-minded women at a scene where all the most shocking violations of human feelings are frequently disclosed; and where the only interest afforded must arise from the fluctuations of the balance in which guilt is weighed against life. Still less are festivities and gaiety suited to such a time and place. Assize-balls are indeed a strange reproach to us.

M. Corru has not in any portion of his volume entered on the question of the expediency of our present code of criminal law: but, from some detached passages, he leads us to suppose that he sees nothing unjust or revolting in it. Indeed, he considers the mode in which our Bank-prosecutions are conducted, in allowing persons accused of bank-forgery to plead guilty to the minor offence of issuing forged notes, as displaying an *incredible degree of clemency*. We might almost suppose the passage to be ironical, when the oppression and cruelty to which that system has given rise are considered. M. Corru seems also to think that our Judges are in a conspiracy to acquit prisoners: but how far this is from being the case, those who have been in the habit of attending courts must frequently have remarked. The following instance of what the author calls the 'excessive indulgence of one of the Judges' is, in fact, nothing more than a dry opinion on the law of the case:

A man named Jacob Butler was indicted at the last Lancaster assizes for robbery, when one of the most important witnesses was absent, which rendered the proof against him incomplete. The counsel for the prosecutor then endeavoured to supply the deficiency, from the examination of the prisoner before the justice of the peace, which, as he argued, contained a formal confession.

During this examination, the prisoner had confessed that, being in company with two others, they met a man in the street who asked them the way, which they offered to shew him; that they took him to Hanover-Street, where, in an alley called Pipe Entry, his companions attacked the man; and William Heap purloined his pocket-book, after which they proceeded onwards altogether; and that, while they were walking, Heap took out the money contained in the pocket-book, which he then shewed to them

quite empty, and which he afterward threw into a pig-sty. The prisoner's counsel argued that this confession contained nothing which implicated the prisoner, but only William Heap, and that consequently it ought not to influence the verdict of the jury. The Judge was of the same opinion, and so charged the jury; who, not finding the other evidence sufficient, acquitted the prisoner, notwithstanding the moral certainty of his guilt.' (P. 101.)

Now the opinion of the Judge was merely what he conceived to be the law; and, if he had intended to shew the prisoner the excessive indulgence of which M. COTTU speaks, he would have been acting contrary to the high duties which he was appointed to exercise.

In pursuing his principal object of inquiry, the nature of the trial by jury, the author seems to have over-rated its attributes and influence. He imagines the jury to be wholly independent of the Judges: as, although he does not state it in express terms, we may gather from the many passages in which he ascribes an almost unbounded power to the former. The extent of the Judge's authority, in compelling the jury to coincide with him in matters of law, has been long a disputed point: but it has never been denied that he has a right to offer his opinion to them on such matters; and it is well known what very great influence that opinion almost invariably exercises over their minds. The author is not altogether consistent with himself, when, in the commencement of his work, he attributes remarkable firmness and an un-deviating adherence to their oaths to English juries; and when afterward he informs us that the Minister is deterred from prosecuting libels, because the political bias or the personal feelings of the jurymen prevent them from convicting criminals. (See pages 103. and 210.)

The chapter on Elections, with which M. COTTU has edified our neighbours on the other side of the Channel, is curious and entertaining. It is evidently the result neither of his own study nor of his own observation, but rather seems to contain the ideas of those of our countrymen with whom it was the author's good fortune to associate here. The remarks on the popular tumults and disorders, which frequently occur at our elections, seem to us perfectly correct:—such movements are productive rather of health than of danger to the community:—but, with respect to the present state of our representative system, many of the most liberal minded Englishmen will perhaps be inclined to differ very materially from the present writer, who has been unable to find, in our mode of electing our representatives, any abuses which require correction. Before we give his ideas on this important subject, which, in

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the existing circumstances of many of the continental governments, cannot fail to excite a strong interest abroad, it will perhaps be well to correct one unaccountable little error, into which a reliance on very imperfect information must have led him. Thus we are told in a note (p. 160.) that, in Liverpool, every inhabitant possesses a vote who does not receive parish-relief. This information, if correct, must certainly be valuable to the burgesses of Liverpool, and would increase the number of voters from about three thousand to upwards of thirty thousand. In fact, however, the franchise of voting in that town is gained only by birth, when the father is a freeman, and the son is born within the limits of the borough; — by seven years' servitude to a freeman; — or by the gift of the corporation. — The mode in which the elective franchise is said to be distributed throughout the country is an error of great magnitude. After having treated of the influence which certain individuals exert over the votes of their fellow-citizens, M. Cottu observes :

‘ To understand with ease the extent of the favours, which those who endeavour to direct the elections engage themselves to scatter as it were through their counties, it is necessary to remember that the right of voting is not limited in England, as in France, to a small class of citizens. *It belongs to all who possess forty shillings income*; and in certain privileged towns, as in London and some others, it is even sufficient to enjoy it if a man becomes a member of certain corporations; so that it may be said that, with the exception of the lowest class, whose influence on the event of the elections is yet very considerable, all the people have the right of co-operating in the election of the members of parliament.’ (P. 160.)

Two very egregious mistakes are made in this paragraph. The qualification of forty shillings *per annum* is not confined by the author, as it should be, to the electors of knights of the shire; nor is it stated that those electors must be *free-holders* to that amount. We are at a loss to conceive in what manner the writer can reconcile this account with that which he afterward gives of our rotten boroughs: — but, as we are not bound to explain all his inconsistencies, we shall proceed to examine his ideas with regard to the interference of the powerful and the wealthy in our elections, where they kindly undertake to inform the consciences of their poorer brethren.

‘ A seat in parliament (*for a county*) has this peculiar attraction, that, besides its being a sure proof of the actual influence which the member possesses in his county, it affords an opportunity of acquiring new power, especially when the successful candidate becomes an adherent of the Minister. — In that case, the patronage of the

county is placed in his hands, and scarcely a single place is given away, but according to his recommendation, whether church livings, curacies, sinecures, collectorships of the revenue, &c. Nothing is ever denied to him; and the ministers find a double advantage in strengthening by these favours the tie which attaches the new member to their cause, and at the same time securing to themselves the same vote in the next parliament, which they accomplish by means of the numerous favours thus spread through the county.

There are also several noble families, which, attached from generation to generation to the government, seem to have entered into a secret treaty with the Minister, by which they have become bound to exert themselves to the utmost in procuring the election of some member of their family, or some partizan, on condition of having in return for their sacrifice the absolute disposal of all the places in their county. Thus, when Lord Longdale, for instance, spends 30,000*l.* or 40,000*l.* in the contested return of one of his family to the House of Commons, it is less the honour of the representation that he purchases at so enormous a price, than the sovereignty, as it may be called, of the county of Westmoreland, in which he resides.

But, in those towns and counties where the Opposition party is strongest, the privilege of sitting in parliament is not less valued, since it is a brilliant testimony of being regarded in the county as the head of the party, and the fittest persons, both from talents and from influence, to oppose the schemes of the Minister, or even to overturn them. As, however, this much-envied influence over the electors is liable, like all other popular feelings, to change, it is only by a continual succession of favours that it can be preserved entire; and hence that love of power and authority, which among all other nations is the cause of so many public misfortunes and private vexations, is on the contrary in England an inexhaustible source of good offices and protection.

The first care of a candidate, then, must be to make himself agreeable to this numerous class of people; and the most certain mode of securing their good-will is to treat them with kindness, and to shew them the esteem which they merit as well on account of the number of individuals of which they are composed, as of the useful professions which they exercise, and the share of the public power with which they are invested.

What member of parliament would dare to receive, I will not say with haughtiness, but even with an air of self-importance, an elector whose vote he solicited but a few years before, whose support he will soon again require, and who would then be able to repay him his disdain with interest? How will he dare to refuse assistance to a man who has thus proudly proclaimed himself his client? Will he suffer his wife or his children to die for want? will he rigorously exact the debts which the elector owes him? or will he refuse to renew his lease?

'In England, a great quantity of land belonging to the first nobility of the kingdom is let for but half its value, with the sole design of securing the votes of the tenants. Can it be thought that it is an easy task to influence electors actuated by such motives as these, and to deprive of their votes those persons to whom they are engaged, especially in a country where those votes are given openly? What numerous advantages are conferred on the nation by this system of elections; which in some respects renders the rich dependant on the poor, opens their hearts to the miseries against which perhaps they would otherwise have been always closed, and, establishing between them to a certain point their natural equality, forces these eldest sons of nature to allow their brothers to partake of that inheritance which has devolved on themselves alone.

'It is thus that those who are at the head of the manufactures or the commerce of their county enjoy such great distinction. They are respected for the number of votes which they can command; I say *command*, for in this matter no sort of shame is felt, and where an elector, who is dependant on his patron, does not vote as he is desired, he is sure of losing his place or his employment. This conduct, which in France would be called the most excessive injustice, is practised in England without the least hesitation. It is necessary either to entertain or to follow the opinions of those with whom we live.' (P. 161.)

Persons may always be found who can discover even in the greatest abuses certain advantages, which compensate in their opinion for every other evil: but, in these practices which the author has detailed, — in the subserviency of the candidate, and in the tyrannical abuse of power by his supporters, — in the virtual bribery of the one and in the open compulsion of the other, — he can see nothing inimical to the spirit of our constitution; and indeed he rather congratulates us on the possession of such manifest advantages. A writer who can thus confound the first principles of representative government, or wholly disregard them, can scarcely be expected to form correct ideas of the true nature and power of the English constitution. It would, however, have been well if M. Cottu had sought for the principles of our government in the works of those of our authors who have so admirably explained and illustrated them: for he would not then have endeavoured to persuade his countrymen, that the present corrupt and degraded state of our representation is that which is recognized by the laws and constitution of England; and that an infamous and illegal exertion of power, which in France would be scouted and abhorred, excites in England no sentiments of indignation! It is precisely in the same spirit of optimism, that he has discovered in our rotten boroughs the bulwarks which have preserved our liberties both from the encroachments of the crown and the licentious-

ness of the people! In defence of these old corruptions, she repeats for the thousandth time the stale apology that they have been the means of introducing, into the House of Commons, not only some of the ablest men who ever sate there, but likewise some of the stoutest supporters of liberty. The answer to this argument is obvious enough. What guarantee have the people that these strenuous defenders of freedom may not be succeeded, to-morrow, by men determined to subvert their liberties? and what remedy do they possess in case of so great an evil?

We shall conclude our extracts with some remarks on the manners of the English, in which M. CORTU seems to have attempted to make amends for all the abuse and misrepresentations that have been poured on us by several of his countrymen. It is indeed gratifying to us to find that the most grievous accusations, which it has been in this author's power to collect, are that our beds are '*mauvais*,' our cookery '*fada et bornée*,' our liquors '*peu agréables*,' our fruits '*longtemps verts**,' our vegetables '*sans saveur*,' and that in our drawing-rooms '*on n'y trouve ni pendules, ni glaces, ni commodes*.' To this catalogue is added the very antient grievance that our fires '*répandent une odeur infecte*.' However, to counterbalance these evils, we are presented with a list of virtues which ought to satisfy even the most exorbitant demands for praise.

In no part of the world has man shewn himself more jealous than in England, of the power which has been granted to him over all the creation. There is not a spot of ground on which he has not impressed the seal of his genius and his will. At his voice the vallies have risen up to form level roads, and the mountains have divided themselves to open a passage for the multitude of canals which form communications between all the rivers, the counties, and even the surrounding seas. In Scotland, the waters have been conveyed over the summits of the hills; and these new streams, astonished by the laws to which they are subjected, and suspended in the air on bridges and aqueducts, rush from rock to rock, traverse rivers, and know no obstacles great enough to arrest their course. In short, the English have created, as it were, a soul in matter; and their machines accomplish by their own power such marvellous labours, that they seem like highly intelligent beings, which require no human assistance.

We find the youth of England possessing an ingenuousness which would seem to belong to the early periods of the world, and to have been transmitted from age to age through families which

* The author here reminds us of one of his countrymen, who said that there was no ripe fruit in England, except one sort, called *bek-pair*, — baked-pear.

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have never been stained by the corruption of the times. The calmness of their features, the purity of their heart, the modesty of their deportment, have all a species of enchantment about them. Nothing can equal the innocence of their manners and even of their thoughts. I have known some who have preserved this chastity of the soul amid all the seductions of Paris, and dissipations of travelling; and every other illusion of the world. Thus they become, in general, faithful husbands, and fathers of numerous progeny; confining themselves to the pleasures which their homes alone afford.

The English women sin by the very excess of those qualities which are most desirable in their sex. Their extreme sweetness, and their extreme reserve, give them in the eyes of a stranger an appearance of submission and dependence which inspires an uneasiness for their fate; and yet I have heard that few women have more dominion over their husbands, and more authority in their houses. They sometimes display in their manners an extreme of modesty and dignity which has something poetical in it. The custom of leaving the dinner-table before the gentlemen, and thus escaping from any lightness of conversation which the licence of wine might inspire, is a charming piece of delicacy; and such also is their habit, when they are on a visit at a gentleman's house, of retiring at night with the mistress of the mansion, leaving their husbands to remain some time in the drawing-room before they rejoin them. (P. 226.)

We lament our inability to insert the comparison which M. Corru has drawn between the ladies of England and those of his own country. The great distinction seems to be that an English lady imagines that she fulfils all her duties if she pleases her husband; while the French fair, more ambitious, aim at delighting all around them. We are sorry, also, that we are unable to examine several more important topics, (we speak it with deference,) into which the author has entered at the conclusion of his volume: where he has briefly noticed some of the defects of the present constitution of France; as also the state of their criminal proceedings, and the possibility of borrowing improvements from our English laws. We may, however, remark that his idea of creating a rich and powerful aristocracy, by the introduction of entails, would probably not be found so effectual a means of promoting the cause of freedom as he imagines. Among ourselves, it has always been considered as so important an object of public policy to unfetter these perpetual inheritances, that our courts of law have occasionally lent their aid for the purpose, even in defiance of the express enactments of the legislature. It may also, perhaps, be thought that M. Corru has attributed too many benefits to the institution of our justices of the peace,

whose jurisdiction has excited the jealousy of some of our most profound lawyers.

Any reader of this volume must, we think, join with us in regretting that the author contented himself with gathering his information from persons around him rather than from higher and more genuine sources; and this regret is increased when we consider the very great facilities which M. Cottu enjoyed, and that he was disposed to view our institutions with an impartial or even a favourable eye. Imperfect as his treatise is, however, it will probably assist in removing those unjust prejudices which have so long existed between the two countries; and to this purpose nothing can be better adapted than the following passage, in which the true basis of a good understanding between us and our neighbours is pointed out: 'Let us establish,' says the writer, 'between them and ourselves a commerce of intellect, of discoveries and of institutions; and let us exchange with them the produce of our wisdom and meditation, as well as the fruits of our land and our industry.'

ART. X. *Voyage de Polyclète, &c.; i. e. Travels of Polyclètes, or Roman Letters.* By the Baron DE THÉIS, Member of the Royal Order of the Legion of Honour. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1*l*. 4*s*.

THIS work is professedly written in imitation of the Travels of Anacharsis, and contains a description of Rome, its manners, and its usages, during the usurpation of Sylla, as supposed to be given by Polyclètes, an Athenian hostage, in letters to different correspondents. The author does not affect any very profound antiquarian knowledge, and confesses that most of his stores have been derived from Adam's Roman Antiquities: but he has introduced the principal peculiarities of the Roman government and customs in a very amusing and interesting manner; and the reader is sometimes drawn on from the modes of antient times into dissertations of a more general and permanent interest, on the imperceptible links which bind the higher and lower classes of society together, on the influence of military or commercial habits, on the progress of the arts, on the connection between literature and refinement of manners, and on the tardy development and late maturity of the abstract sciences. In some of these political discussions, with which the work is interspersed, we should have imagined that the author had a reference to the affairs of France under Napoleon, and under the
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restored dynasty; but in the preface he very particularly disclaims any such allusion; observing, 'I have been for many years more engaged with the city of Rome than with what was passing around me. The government of my country has changed several times since I commenced my work, and the opinions of my countrymen have changed still more frequently; but such considerations have never induced me to substitute one single word in the place of another.'

We extract the ensuing passage as a favourable specimen of the writer's manner. Polycletus is relating to his friend the particulars of a conversation at an entertainment at which he was present, when one of the company rather excited his feelings by some comments on Athens;

"I have been in Greece," said this guest, "as proconsul, and have therefore had good opportunities of observing the government of the different states, and you are not to suppose that the government of Athens escaped my attention. Now I would ask you what prospect such a constitution as yours offers to the most illustrious of its citizens? Is it to be named, by chance or by intrigue, a judge with a salary of four oboli per day; to pass in succession from court to court; to change a title without advancing in dignity; to become archon, perhaps, and so enjoy a momentary and fringed ascendancy; and, as the acmé, to make a part of the Areopagus for the rest of life? Then, forsooth, this successful candidate, having attained the height of his ambition, is enabled in conjunction with ninety-nine colleagues to exercise an absolute jurisdiction over the whole country from Mount Cytheron to Cape Suniam; a space which a deputy-quæstor would disdain to govern. Such is the noble field open there to a man's ambition! Happy indeed if his career be not intercepted by ostracism, and if he himself be not compelled to fly from the villainous theatre on which his talents began to be displayed!"

The speaker proceeded to contrast with this narrow sphere the encouragement given by Rome to the abilities of her citizens, and Polycletus then endeavoured to defend his country thus:

"I am far from disputing the grandeur of the title which belongs to a Roman citizen. Every thing which I have seen here bears witness to the advantages enjoyed by the Roman people, and the dignity of their demeanour corresponds with their high destinies: but was Rome less an object of respect when its territory was yet more limited than the Athenian is at present? You now disdain a moderate state, but in moderation originated your genuine glory, and from that stock have your extraordinary successes been derived. What virtue, what magnanimity, what heroism, was centered in this country, while it was yet so limited; and, in spite of the prodigious extension of its boundaries, is it quite clear that an equal number of true patriots can be found here

here at this day? I do not fear to say, and to say it in your presence, that virtue laid the foundations of Roman grandeur, and that the superstructure has been built by fortune.” —

“ Ah !” said the consul, interrupting me briskly, “ do you think that you are still living in the best days of Greece, since you hold such language? could there be discovered among you in these days a Miltiades, an Aristides, or a Phocion? Your narrow limits have not protected you from degeneracy, and like us you have fallen from your title to the veneration of the world : but our power still abides with us ; and if our virtue be somewhat faded, our grandeur is now at its highest lustre.” — “ Perhaps,” said I, “ we no longer reckon among us such characters as you have mentioned : but, while our institutions remain unaltered, we may hope that circumstances will again produce the same talents. In times much subsequent to those which you quote, Aratus, Polybius, and Philopemon have revived the fame of Greece ; and the genuine patriotism, temperance, and disinterestedness which characterized them, have recalled to our memory those heroic ages of which many question the existence on account of their remoteness, and their discordance with existing modes. Our schools of philosophy are still in their full splendour. By their different views, according to their different sects, they elevate the mind to generous ideas ; and, notwithstanding the difference of opinion by which they are distinguished one from another, the ultimate object of all is to promote the welfare of the community and the happiness of individuals. Perhaps I may admit that Greece has insensibly fallen from the elevation which she once maintained, but such decline is the effect of time, and seems to be the course of nature. It has required ages to make any alteration with us, while at Rome a few years have entirely altered your character ; among you the old men belong as it were to a different race of beings ; they seem to be separated from their children by an interval of several centuries. This great revolution is owing to your success in the second Punic war : your nation, disencumbered from a painful contest, is at length placed on the throne of the universe, if I may be allowed such an expression, and is now seized with all those insatiable cravings which seem inseparable from absolute power.”

The consul, raising himself on his couch, said, “ Doubtless prosperity has produced a change in our manners : but beware, young Greek, of indulging the notion that our elevation has been merely the result of fortune. A single successful or disastrous war, a single battle lost or won, does not decide the fate of a mighty empire. The institutions of a kingdom are the real source of its grandeur or its decline. The strength of the laws produces the strength of the state : if they are good, it prospers ; if they are weak, it declines ; if they are bad, it perishes. Nations are by nature constituted courageous or timid, industrious or lazy, enterprising or peaceable : but the laws inspire them with qualities which mere climate would have denied them ; and the power of the nation advances or declines according to the nature of the government. In vain did Alexander raise Macedon to the height of power : he was not a legislator ;

legislator : his glory was personal, and was not transmitted to his successor. A hero may be born in the midst of the most uncivilized people : he passes away, and nothing survives but his name. — At Rome, on the contrary, the progress of legislation has uniformly preceded the progress of arms. Religion, public and private rights, and the duties of patriotism, have all been settled on sure foundations. Our code regulates the decisions of the senate, and directs popular elections : it decides on the fate of sovereigns as well as on the property of the meanest citizen ; and, though the application may be sometimes erroneous, the rules themselves are unimpeachable. Our principles are systematic, and therefore our success will be uniform. The empire of Rome is founded on its constitution in the same manner as its capital is built on a rock, and it can be overthrown only by a convulsion of nature. — There are some nations, indeed, to be found in history, who have played a brilliant part on the theatre of the world without having produced illustrious characters, and whose power has been considerable though their laws have been little praiseworthy. Of this class are commercial nations. Their progress towards power is greater than that of any other people : but those mean sentiments which are the source of their opulence are the cause of their decline. The transition to excessive wealth inspires them with pride, and the spirit of usurpation. Haughty on the strength of what they have already acquired, they imagine that no enterprise is too great for them ; the advantages which money has once obtained for them they doubt not that it can always ensure ; and they disregard all the rights of nations when put in competition with their own momentary interest. But, in proportion as they create new enemies, they are themselves weakened in their powers of resistance ; and, how much soever their industry may be promoted, their courage is reduced, their patriotism is extinguished, and the nation is without any native military strength. Foreign subsidiaries become year after year more exorbitant in their demands, or betray the cause which they were hired to support. The enemies of a wealthy nation possess all those qualities of which it is destitute, but are deficient in what it possesses. At length, the struggle commences ; the wish for preserving their wealth gives way to the stronger desire of increasing it ; and nations, whose prosperity awed the universe, now produce amazement by their downfall. Thus perished Tyre and proud Carthage, and thus will all states perish whose dominion is founded on mercantile wealth ; who consider riches as the grand national object ; and who fondly imagine that, when they purchase foreign armies, they are acquiring real strength. Other nations, more just perhaps than the Romans, and wiser than the Carthaginians, have adopted a different system. While some aimed at an enlargement of territory, their object has been stability ; and this has been the uniform and paramount aim of their legislature. Such have been the views of Greece. The numerous states of which it is composed have been principally desirous of maintaining mutual independence ; and, while interests of particular

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states have been often opposed to one another; they have ~~endeavoured~~ by a *holy alliance* to prevent the prepotence of any one of them from endangering the liberty of the rest. All have gained the ascendancy in turn, but none have retained it for any length of time. The successful have been checked by the confederation of their discreet neighbours, and the defeated have been supported in their downfall. Your most important conquests have been made out of Greece, properly so called; and in these enterprizes, conducted as they have been in general with great circumspection, your smaller states have been less anxious to enlarge their boundaries than to secure their dependencies. Nevertheless, as human nature is at best imperfect, your legislators have too exclusively attended to their own particular states. The great king, ~~more~~ was the object of their common hostility; and thus, while the Amphictyons were engaged in balancing and regulating the interests of Greece, Macedon was silently preparing bonds of iron for the whole nation. Your states, perceiving too late their real interest, attempted in vain to defend themselves, and were relieved from the recollections of the defeat which they suffered ~~while~~ they joined in a glorious enterprize to avenge themselves on their ancient enemy. Restored to freedom on a sudden, by the unexpected death of the man who had usurped the supreme rule in defiance of their will, they wasted their strength in contemptible contests of rivalry, and were too insensible of the danger impending over them all from the success of the Roman arms. Ancient Greece, so much renowned for courage as well as for science, was overcome almost as soon as she was attacked, and a nation of whose existence she was scarcely aware was the conqueror. — This short sketch," continued he, "may suffice to shew that a great people, as long as its institutions remain, may become still greater, although its primitive virtue may have passed away; and that, on the other hand, a small state ought not to be despised because it has itself prescribed bounds to its ambition."

The author has in general maintained with considerable success his assumed character, and the sentiments expressed are such as might have reasonably been entertained by an Athenian in the situation of Polycletes. On some occasions; however, as in the seventeenth letter, (vol. ii. p. 24.) where he describes the influence and rank attained by orators, and in the twenty-second letter, (vol. ii. p. 129.) where he comments on the different sects of the philosophers, he forgets that in the eyes of an Athenian there could be little either of novelty or interest in these matters. — In the tenth and forty-fifth letters, also, (vol. i. p. 227. and vol. iii. p. 225.) we meet with several remarks on religious ceremonies, and on the nature of prodigies, which cannot with any great probability be attributed to an Athenian. — Some of the best descriptions in the work are those which display the Roman luxury, the sumptuous

sumptuousness of their entertainments, the grandeur of their villas; their mighty bands of retainers and slaves, and the elegance as well as the extent of their gardens and pleasure-grounds. Is it true that the *Baron de Théis* would not have dwelt so much on the scenery and prospects as beautiful objects to the eye, if he had been aware that the Greeks, and indeed the Romans till the days of Augustus, had no landscape-painters, and were nearly insensible to the beauty of scenery as a mere spectacle? — The work, however, is on the whole written in a very engaging manner; and the author has availed himself with great judgment of the opportunities which the epistolary mode of writing gives him, of glancing over the most striking features and pleasing appearance of the objects presented to the view of Polycletes; while, by dismissing and resuming subjects at pleasure, he has been enabled to introduce much valuable and instructive information, without becoming tedious or appearing minute.

We must, however, except from this praise the dull and prolix account, in the xxiiid letter, (vol. i. p. 157.) of the Roman festivals; and we cannot conceive what could induce the author, instead of introducing the description of the principal of these festivals at different periods, as they may be supposed to have occurred to the observation of Polycletes, to class them all together in one letter, taking them as they follow in the calendar:—except that for so doing nothing more was necessary than to translate the calendar-account of '*le recteur Adam*,' which the worthy Baron has in fact done almost literally.—A more useful book than Adam's Roman Antiquities cannot well be imagined: but it should be among the great excellences of a publication like the travels of Polycletes that it makes amusement the vehicle of instruction, and gives life and motion to the materials which have been collected by others: thus enabling those who have too little intrepidity or too much taste to pore over dictionaries and encyclopædias, to have scenes long passed brought again before them in agreeable illusion; and to witness without trouble the decorations of the magistrates, the pomp of triumphal processions, the combats of gladiators, the baths, the statues, the temples, and the funeral pyres of the lords of the antient world. Thus executed, productions of this kind, in which much knowledge is embodied under a veil of agreeable fiction, cannot be too highly appreciated: they form a bond of union between the more gentle and the austere classes of readers: they bring erudition into terms of communion with polite literature: they increase the stock of innocent amusement; and they enlarge the sphere of general and cultivated conversation.

Article. *Etudes de l'Homme, &c.*; or, Studies on Man, of
 inquiries respecting the Faculties of Sensation and Reflection.
 by CHARRLES VICTOR DE BONSTETTEN. 2 Vols. 8vo. Geneva
 1811. Imported by Treuttel and Wütze. Price 12s. 6d.

As the ground-work of this compendium, the author has adopted the system of M. Bonnet of Geneva, of whose memory he speaks on every occasion in terms of affection and reverence. Of that system our opinion has long been before our readers. The great defect in the present treatise is an imperfect analysis: in consequence of which many operations of the mind, of a character absolutely identical, are classed as the productions of distinct powers or faculties. The mixture, also, of reasoning and declamation, though it may have its service in giving popularity to speculations on abstract subjects, often rather perplexes than illustrates; and the reader, before his judgment is entirely convinced by M. BONSTETTEN's arguments, finds his attention diverted by some fanciful episode: so that, where he wished to be instructed, he must rest content with being amused. Subtle discussions in psychology are interrupted by moral and political diatribes; and the only impression at first produced, by some of the most just and valuable observations in the whole book, is that of their extreme impertinence and inaptitude in the places in which they are introduced.

M. BONSTETTEN distributes the furniture of the mind into ideas, affections, and relations. *Ideas* he defines to be representations of external objects communicated by means of the senses. Under *affections*, he comprehends animal appetites, which he considers to depend on physical organization, the perception of beauty, and the moral sense. *Relations* are produced by the comparison of two or more ideas. — Again, *ideas* are the product of the senses; *affections*, of the imagination; *relations*, of the understanding. The aim of the imagination is *choice*, that of the understanding, *truth*; and the happiness of man depends on the harmonious accord of the imagination with the understanding. — Such is the outline of this writer's views; in which, if there be any novelty, it seems to originate either in the perplexity of terms or in a defective investigation of the subject. What, for instance, can be more confused than to refer all the affections to the imagination, and at the same time to comprehend under the term affections the animal appetites, and to admit that they depend on the physical organization? The perception of beauty, and the moral sense, M. BONSTETTEN considers as primary and original faculties, equally uniform with the external sense, in every thing that they exercise in pleasure. Every thing that they would do on sight is in M. BONSTETTEN's VOL. XXVI.

their feelings on the presence of their appropriate objects. History, and indeed every man's individual experience, prove such a theory to be unfounded in fact. Whether there be or be not any original tendencies in the mind, which induce it to prefer one object to another as beautiful, or one proposition to another as true, is a question of considerable difficulty: but every inquirer, who gives due weight to facts, must admit that such tendencies, if they exist, may be suspended or reversed by habitual or even accidental associations; and that, if the influence of association be not every thing, it is at least the principal ingredient in producing our emotions of beauty, and in directing and modifying our moral perceptions. We are the more particular in these objections, because, though M. BONSTETTEN deviates from his course at every turn, we remark throughout the work a very great affectation of minute analysis, and he seems to pride himself most on what we really apprehend not to be his forte.—Some of the moral and political observations, which are interspersed through the volumes, appear to us of a more valuable nature than the abstract discussions among which they are interwoven. In his remarks on manners and characters, the author displays considerable sagacity and discrimination; and his animadversions on republics, particularly the Swiss institutions, are written with great judgment. He considers education as the essential ground-work of all national improvement, and quotes with approbation the sentence of *Pascal*, that good sense is the parent of good morals. He enlarges with much earnestness on the direct benefits produced in the administration of justice by the publicity of all judicial proceedings, and on the indirect benefits resulting from the conviction of security and impartiality which is thus diffused through the community. He is also a warm advocate for the liberty of the press, and for the freedom of private judgment both on political and religious subjects. Sometimes, indeed, the warmth of his imagination hurries him onwards into fanciful analogies, and overdrawn descriptions: but, when combined with the talent of acute observation, such enthusiasm will in the opinion of most readers amply redeem its blemishes by its sincerity.

We shall quote a passage as a specimen at once of the excellence of the author's reflections in the main, and of his characteristic failings. Having remarked on the ambiguity of the phrase "a moral character," in its ordinary language, he continues:

'For instance, men generally are most severe in moral judgments on the excess in pleasures. Every thing, they say, would go on right

if our morals were but sufficiently strict. But, deprive men of amusements and science, consider some particular moral injunctions as all in all, and you will find that, instead of virtuous characters, you will produce beings melancholy, intolerant, and disposed to suspicion, fanaticism, and avarice. I know a town of austere manners, in which a person of the greatest integrity, perhaps, and the greatest knowledge in the whole country, was put to death within the last fifty years for an imaginary crime, of which people would be ashamed to suppose the existence at the present day. According to common phraseology, this town was remarkably moral: but does not the sacrifice of this victim prove that such phrases have little definite meaning; and that a demure carriage, strict attention to punctilios, and rigid habits, do not suffice to constitute a really moral character? Was there ever more austerity in habits than among the Puritans in the time of Charles the First; and yet who could have done more mischief to their country, than these murderers of the King would have effected if they had been able to continue to give prevalence to their maxims?

I have seen men of severe morality make a sale of justice, and do still worse. Who have supported the exercise of torture with more obstinacy than these very correct moralists? Among whom rather than among them have prejudices been preserved in all their antient purity? Who have ever made a greater duty of hatred? Who are greater enemies to the liberty of the press, than those who condemn all who are not exactly of the same way of thinking? Who more inclined to enwrap themselves in darkness, than men who are sensible of the striking contrast between their pretensions and their personal insignificance? All those evils which constitute national misery are connected with what so many people call *morals*. What, then, is to be done? I may be asked, Are you an advocate for dissolute manners? I am a friend neither of dissolute nor austere manners, but am much inclined to adopt the maxim of Horace, "*In vitium ducit culpæ fuga, si caret arte.*"

In fine, M. BONSTETTEN appears to us to display in this essay a considerable share of enthusiasm and vivacity, much benevolent fervour for the improvement of political institutions and the advancement of happiness among mankind, and an imagination that occasionally throws happy lights on the objects over which it glances, yet sometimes (indeed more frequently) plays about in irregular sallies with a radiance that is brilliant, but useless because not sufficiently concentrated. Much seems to have been written under sudden impulses, when the author's mind was totally absorbed with the particular aspect of that portion of the subject on which he was engaged, without due consideration of its general bearings, or sufficient comparison of the different parts of his plan. Few persons, indeed, from perusing the work itself, and considering the inconsistencies, the repetitions, and the disproportions which it exhibits, would conjecture what the author assures us in his preface

preface to be the fact, that he has passed five years in collecting and arranging his materials. We hope that he will be encouraged to investigate the nature of man yet farther, and still more diligently to revise what he has already written. By re-casting the psychological part of the book, and condensing and arranging in a new manner the moral and political portion, we doubt not that this ingenious and ardent student of human nature may produce a treatise more creditable to his judgment and taste than the present, and equally honourable to his ingenuity and his philanthropy. As it is, we can only regret that so much that is valuable in statements of facts, and in comments on society, is enveloped in fanciful theories, unmeaning distinctions of words, and frivolous declamation. These insuburances form, we apprehend, such a circle of repulsion, that few English readers will have hardihood enough to penetrate into the interior, but will lay down the volumes as soon as their eyes glance over a paragraph or two of apparent mysticism or whimsicality. Such a slight inspection, however, will certainly not enable any person to do M. BONSTETTEN justice; and we heartily wish that he had done more justice to himself.

ART. XII. *Le Neveu de Rameau, &c.*; i.e. *The Nephew of Rameau*, a Dialogue; a posthumous and unpublished Work of DIDEROT. 8vo. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 7s.

IT was the great object of the antient philosophers to interest the imagination in favour of virtue. They did not paint in gay colours all the pleasures and interesting situations of vice; they did not deck out the impetuous impulses and exorbitance of the passions with all the circumstance of pomp and triumph: but they seemed to think that those moral distinctions, which inevitably arise in the mind of every rational being, are yet so strongly connected with the social affections, and with those early associations which language may create in the thought, that the surest way of maintaining the supremacy of the understanding was to secure the avenues to the heart, and to render odious every impression of vice by representing it in its naked deformity, stripped of its agreeable and seductive exterior, and skulking from the sight of man. The moralists of old directed the natural instincts of fondness for pleasure and aversion from pain to their proper objects, by shewing what was really pleasurable and really painful on a long view of circumstances; and thus they fortified the

judgment against first impressions. They cherished all the particular affections and social sympathies, as the grand stock and parent of humanity and extended benevolence; and, instead of raising man's selfishness to beat down every virtuous propensity of his nature, they exposed the meanness of all gratifications absolutely terminating in self, while they illustrated the indissoluble connection between rational self-love and the domestic, the social, and the patriotic virtues. According to them, the union between wisdom, goodness, and happiness was an alliance founded in nature; and this constitution of nature was considered as an evidence of an over-ruling Providence, and of the attributes of that Supreme Being.

A plan very different has been pursued in recent times by a great portion of the French philosophers; and in that class the author of the work before us holds a conspicuous station, both by his talents and by his boldness. It has been the system with this school to dethrone conscience from its supremacy, and to decry the existence of a reflecting principle as a chimera, or as the imposture of habit and education. All the events of life and of nature are attributed to a blind necessity. As soon as the sense of duty is removed, it is easy to see that man's conduct is left merely to the accidental predominance of particular passions. Success in the world is happiness: sensual pleasure is the ultimatum; and wealth, rank, and honours are desirable only as far as they conduce to corporeal gratifications. — From disregarding the approbation of his own mind, man is easily taught to despise the opinions of others. Divested of all those ordinary sympathies which awaken and enlarge the heart, and of those principles which regulate the understanding, he is rendered the victim of every wayward impulse, and the society of human beings is converted into a pandemonium.

The tale before us is, however, composed with considerable ingenuity. DIDEROT affects to give the account of a conversation which passed at a coffee-house between him and a strange half-witted being whom he designates as the '*Nephew of Rameau*,' the famous musical composer; and who is described as possessing musical talents of the highest order, and all the gesticulations and mimic powers of a consummate Merry-andrew, combined with the meanness of a parasite, and the effrontery and absolute insensibility of the most hardened profligate. A character of this cast enables the author to depict scenes of licentious indulgence, and to describe actions of hardened villainy, which common decency and common humanity would have forbidden him to introduce in any other manner. The wretch relates not only without remorse, but with

the greatest complacency and triumph, the ingenious devices by which he succeeded in seducing innocence, when engaged as the hired agent and pander for the pleasures of others: the story of a Jew, who was swindled out of all his property, by the craft of a man who was under every obligation to him, is to dwindle with rapture; and, though the philosopher occasionally observes that he cannot describe the sensations of surprise and horror which he felt at the inaptitude of the narrator's reflections to the subject, yet he continues to remark that he did not interrupt the detail by comments, lest he should disturb the course of the speaker's ideas. — The chaos of licentiousness, servility, and baseness, is sometimes relieved by musical dissertations, and by extravagancies of musical representation, in which the mime exerts himself to such a degree that he sometimes faints away from exhaustion. The observations which this strange being is supposed to make on the nature of music, and on the comparative merits of the French and Italian operas, are very creditable to DIDEROT's taste, and are by much the most sensible parts of the volume: but the fine sense of harmony, which is attributed to 'the Nephew of *Rameau*,' is in strange contrast with his complete insensibility to all order and regularity in life.

The dialogue closes by 'the Nephew' giving an account of the manner in which he should deem it right to educate his own child; discarding all vulgar prejudices, earnestly endeavouring to prevent his being affected with any foolish sensibility, and instructing him to idolize wealth as the *summum bonum*, the indispensable qualification and the unfailing source of happiness in the world to all who are properly educated for it. After much declamation and extravagance uttered by 'the Nephew' on this subject, the author subjoins the following comment:

'It is very true that in what he was saying there was a great deal which is in every person's thoughts, but which it seems as if there was a compact among mankind never to utter; notions which every body entertains at heart, but which are forbidden to approach the tongue; and the only difference between my original and the generality of people is that he avowed openly the vices which he had in his heart, and which others have there also: but he was no hypocrite, and yet was not worse than the rest of mankind; he was only more frank, more sincere, and sometimes more profound in his systematic perversity.'

Nothing can be more odious, or less true, than a system which represents human life as a mere intercourse of hypocrisy with hypocrisy. Such satires on human nature, instead of evincing the profundity of an author's genius, and his great insight into the real motives of actions, prove only his

partial acquaintance with the species, and his imperfect induction of general principles from the habits of the narrow and exclusive sphere in which he may have himself moved. *Roche-foucauld's* Maxims are not the maxims of mankind, but of the court of Louis the Fourteenth; and *Mandeville's* Fable of the Bees is not a representation of human nature, but a droll exposure of the absurdities and inconsistencies of vanity. It is a whimsical paradox, supported by a caricature of the species. Those readers, who can resist the charms of humour, and pause to reflect, are satisfied that there are other motives to action besides regard to personal gratification and the love of praise; that even the worst of men have impulses and affections of a worthier nature; and that the moral virtues are something more than 'the political offspring which flattery begets upon pride.' Yet the impression that is made on the inconsiderate reader, and indeed on the fancy of all until they recollect themselves, by such works of ridicule and of arch satire against morality, is very strong and vivid. Every example of hypocrisy is considered as a proof of the preconceived hypothesis that all virtue is delusion; and, when any instance occurs of virtuous conduct which cannot be explained into some mean motive, still the natural sympathies are checked, and admiration and esteem are suspended because what appears before us *may* on examination prove to be but a semblance and an imposture, and because according to the hypothesis it *must* prove so to be. The suspicion which is thus generated, at the same time that it corrupts the heart, reduces and impairs the powers of the understanding; and a man, at the very moment when he is anxious not to be deceived, closes his mind to all evidence except that which is filled with the grossest imposture, the calumnies and detractions of vulgar report. — When DIDEROT asserts that all mankind secretly entertain the same principles with the mean and worthless character whom he brings forwards as the 'Nephew of Rameau,' he merely gratifies his spleen at the expence of truth. When in the person of that nephew he ridicules all steady exertion and orderly conduct as incompatible with genius, he proves only that he was not himself superior to the age in which he lived; but was a dupe to the absurd prejudices of a profligate and licentious court. Lastly, when he observes that 'all which a man has to do is to discern his relative positions, and to accommodate his principles to his convenience,' and that 'life is but a game of chance, and happiness the prize of the most selfish and adroit players,' we know not whether to express most strongly our surprise at the writer's effrontery, or our detestation of the false and debasing principles which he develops.

Art. XIII. *An Essay on the Geography of North-western Africa.* By T. E. Bownick, Esq. Small 8vo. pp. 130. With Maps. Paris. 1821.

Art. XIV. *The British and French Expeditions to Timbuctoo; with Remarks on Civilization in Africa.* By T. E. Bownick, Esq. 8vo. Pamphlet. Paris. 1821.

Art. XV. *An Essay on the Superstitions, Customs, and Arts, common to the Ancient Egyptians, Abyssinians, and Ashantis.* By T. E. Bownick, Esq. 4to. pp. 70. and two Plates. Paris. 1821.

[Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.]

THE mission to Ashantee has conferred no mean distinction on Mr. Bownick; and if he has learned to estimate things not by their name but by their value, he will prefer this distinction to many of those honours which dazzle the vain and the ambitious. He has met, indeed, with discouragement: but when was the path of honest and upright exertion unobscured by envy or malice? Let him persevere with firmness and temper. Those who take the lead, in the noble work of introducing civilization and improvement into Africa, will not finally countenance the sordid and little intrigues which directly tend to defeat the great scheme of their benevolence.

We have already attempted to do justice to this gentleman, in former articles of our Journal; and we will not repeat our commendations of the zeal and activity displayed by him in his mission: but we cannot forbear from again briefly pointing out their results. We have now an official agent at the capital of that kingdom, which but a few years ago was as little known to us as if it had belonged to another planet; and to those who are aware of the vast and gigantic difficulties, which have hitherto opposed themselves to our attempts at carrying on an intercourse with the interior countries of Africa, we need not say how much has been effected, and in an incredibly short time, by the almost unaided exertions of Mr. B. Yet, whatever the zeal and ardour of this young traveller have already accomplished, it appears light and insignificant compared with all that may reasonably be augured from the comprehensive and philosophical views which he has formed on the great subject of African civilization. He seems to have pursued his ideas to their natural developement, without losing himself in a labyrinth of barren and useless speculation; and this whole scheme is founded on good sense, and that practical philosophy which rests on sure and sound induction. Let us establish, he says, commercial relations through our settlements on the coast with internal Africa, and exhibit to these

unhappy nations the ameliorating example of that justice and integrity for which they have hardly a name; but of which the healing and enlightening influence will be soon felt and rapidly diffused. Industry, agriculture, and commerce, will insensibly but not tardily bring with them the manners by which ferocity is softened, and the sentiments of our common nature, dormant rather than extinct in savage and uncultivated bosoms, are called into life and action. With these views, he has, in our opinion, dwelt with becoming emphasis on the inutility of those solitary and insulated efforts to penetrate the interior of Africa, to which so many valuable lives have been already sacrificed. He proposes to advance gradually, by political relations; to carry on amicable negotiations with the chiefs or kings of the country; and to establish among them accredited residents of probity and talent.

We are pleased to remark that, although Mr. B.'s country, owing to the circumstances which we have detailed in a former article, (vol. xcii. p. 68.) has been lately deprived of his service, the cause of African civilization is not likely to be a sufferer by his temporary retirement (for we trust that it is only temporary) from the great theatre of his exertions. In the intermediate time he has been diligent, and, if we may judge from the tracts before us, not unprofitably employed. When the present system is corrected, as we doubt not it will be, a gentleman who has devoted himself with such exemplary ardour to the preliminary studies, that are so essentially requisite to African investigations, will surely no longer be elbowed out of stations in which his talents may be usefully employed, by more favoured but less qualified competitors.

The 'Essay on the Geography of North-western Africa' is an illustration of a new map of that country, founded exclusively on the routes of travellers and detailed itineraries: but it is impossible that we should enter into the intricate discussions of so many geographical problems as Mr. B. endeavours to solve. Our readers, if they had not the map constantly before them, would be inextricably lost amid the names of barbarous places, and of routes which must be diligently explored by the eye before they can be impressed on the mind: for a verbal description of that which can be only graphically delineated would render it still more confused.

*"rudis indigestaque moles,
Nec quidquam, nisi pondus iners."*

We shall simply remark, therefore, that Mr. B. has undertaken to reform and enlarge *D'Anville's* map of the coasts of Guinea and its interior, or rather to frame one for those regions

regions that is wholly original. This he has been enabled to do by his own mounts to Ashantee, and the navigations of Colonel *Storrending*, with other data, hitherto ideas and disconnected. He observes that the hourly arrivals of the *massie* (the capital of Ashantee) of visitors, merchants and slaves from the tributary kingdoms of *Gassan*, *Soko*, *Baidi*, *Huta*, *Dagwumba*, *Gamba*, *Boorooma*, and even from *Mtata* and *Keng*, with the daily departure of Ashantees from each of these countries, and the checks and intersections which their various and detailed routes afford, furnish a positive knowledge which, if laid down with caution and discussed with candour, will establish the British claim to the discovery of these regions by solid outlines, which travellers of any other nation may fill up and correct, but will never find reason to erase. The detailed itineraries, also, from *Codominion* to *Jemie*, and from *Dagwumba* to the ferries of the *Niger* at *Yacota* and *Gambadi*, in which every day's halting is particularized, conduct us now, for the first time, in the map, over the remaining blank space between the *Gold Coast* and the *Niger*. For the uncertain positions of *Edina*, *Mry* (*Bris*) substitutes the relations of the Moors, with their routes and distances (confirmed by numerous coincidences which he has discovered in geographers and travellers, Arabian and European) to *Houssa*, *Cassina*, and *Bornoo*, from one kingdom on the banks of the *Niger* to another; and he considers them as the only itineraries for this part of the interior. The map has, moreover, a species of merit of which geographers in general are negligent; it presents no fanciful hypothesis, but simply what is actually known, or what is founded on detailed itineraries which have been submitted to every possible test of comparison and investigation.

The second track before us is an inquiry into the French and a vindication of the British expedition to *Pemboi* in our number for July last, we gave unreservedly our opinion concerning *M. Mollien's* pretensions to the discovery of the sources of the *Senegal* and *Gambia*; and in order to estimate precisely the value of that discovery, *Mad. Bournon* follows him to those parts of his track which previous travellers had traced, entering for this purpose into a sketch of the geographical history of that region of Africa, into which we despair of accompanying him. The sources, however, of the *Senegal* and *Gambia*, we conceive to have been settled by the sagacity and industry of *Park*, and the judicious investigations of *Major Rennell*, the father of modern geography. His map prefixed to *Park's* first *Sketch*, the head of the *Senegal* was first laid down in 1780, and 1783, was on a scale of 80 miles

80 miles west of that of the Niger. In the map to Park's second journey, which was not constructed by Major Retnell, the course of the Gambia is corrected, having been found by Park to make a sudden dip of about 40 miles; and the source of the Senegal was removed a degree to the east, and that of the Niger a degree and a half more west, so as to appear ~~not~~ more than 70 miles from the Senegal, instead of 120. The longitudinal distance between the sources of the Gambia and the Senegal was consequently decreased half a degree. The essential differences between M. Mollien's map and that of Park's last expedition are, 1st, the source of the Rio Grande; 2dly, the approximation to a very short distance of the sources of the Gambia and Senegal; 3dly, the deepening of the dip of the Gambia before mentioned, nearly 100 miles; 4thly, placing Teembo about 100 miles nearer to the west than it was determined by Mr. Watt*; and, 5thly, marking the source of the Niger 180 miles nearer the coast than Park fixed it.

M. Mollien, however, did not arrange his distances by astronomical observations, whereas those of Park are determined by a series of latitudes and longitudes; and another circumstance, fatal in our opinion to the bearings and distances of M. Mollien, is that he makes no mention of the variation of the compass. As it is therefore more than probable that he has not considered such variation, the result (for instance) of the distances and bearings of his journeys from Dieddie to Sedo, which he fixes to be 26' southing and 197' 7" easting, equal in that parallel to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, will, by allowing for the variation, (which according to the latest observations on the coast is one and a half point westerly) be about two miles southing and 137 miles easting; which would place Sedo about 100 miles to the N. E. of its position on his map. This is not all. He has evidently over-rated his days' marches. The lamented Park, whose exertions have never been surpassed, considered 18 G. miles in direct distance as a long journey: but M. Mollien, whose physical powers by his own confession must be much inferior to those of Park, travelled almost twice as far. Precipices, rocks so steep as to be scarcely passable, and torrents arresting his steps every minute, seemed rather to accelerate than retard the French traveller; and, when he considered himself as having been poisoned, and consequently was in a debilitated state, he still could perform a journey of 28 miles. — We shall quit this tedious and uninteresting region of research, by quoting Mr.

* He visited Teembo by a *direct*, whereas M. Mollien arrived there by a *circuitous*, route.

BOWDICH'S remarks on the astonishing leap given by M. Mollien to the source of the Niger :

As regards M. Mollien's placing the source of the Niger so nearer the coast than Park, that is, within 150 miles of it, such an alteration is a presumption which I am sure noble of the French geographers will sanction, and which, I think I may venture to add, neither Lapie, Brue, or any of their map-delineators will sustain or copy. That Park at *Kamalia*, where he lived six months in friendship and confidence with the intelligent and liberal-minded Karfa Taura, constantly occupied in enquiry and observation, should have made a gross error in the source of the Niger; and that a traveller of the class of M. Mollien should have corrected this error in hurrying through *Téembo*, watched and suspected, is a little apocryphal: really M. Mollien should have been content to have left us *one* out of the *five* great rivers of this part of Africa, as Park and Major Rennell had determined them. The illness which prevented his proceeding would appear to have been an indigestion of discovery. It would be insulting the memory of Park and the reputation of Major Rennell, to think of fortifying their conclusions by the accounts of others, when they are expunged by such authority as the present; but merely in justice to poor Mr. Watt, we may add, that amongst the accounts given him by the Nolas; that "of their not reaching the great water (the *Joliba*) until after a month's journey from *Téembo*," is a little inconvenient for M. Mollien's discovery. Travellers seem to manifest a disposition at the present moment to accommodate the relaxed disposition of governments for discoveries in Africa, by shortening the distances to those great points which are most desirable to reach, in a proportionate ratio to the abatement of energy. Thus, the Niger, which, during the memorable exertions of the African Association, was admitted to be 360 miles from the coast, is now approached to within 150; and Timbuctoo is brought down by a Mr. Roberts* to within three days' navigation of a canoe from the Atlantic.

The other tract, which remains to be noticed, leads us into a learned and abstruse inquiry. It is an essay to prove, by much curious evidence, that Ashantee, as well as Abyssinia, has derived many of its arts, customs, and superstitions, from antient Egypt; of which hypothesis, the basis is the descent of most of the higher classes of the Ashantees from those eastern Ethiopians, who had been civilized by an intercourse with the emigrants and colonists from Egypt. That the intercourse was frequent between Egypt and Ethiopia in antient times is self-evident; and that the emigrants from Egypt introduced into their Ethiopian settlements the arts and usages of the parent-country is highly probable.

* Notes on Africa. — London, 1819.

Mr. B. considers the Ashantees to be a portion of the civilized Ethiopians mentioned by Herodotus and Heliodorus, pressed westward by the Egyptian emigrants, and afterward driven to emigrate still farther westward by the invasion of Ptolemy Euergetes. He conjectures (plausibly, we think,) that the Ashantees and their neighbours must, from time to time, have been disturbed by the emigrations of the nations bordering on the Mediterranean, many of whose names have been discovered to the south of the Niger. Into the enumeration of these tribes we cannot enter: but the identity of their names, north and south of the Niger, with the Mediterranean nations, is amply established. The general inference, then, is this:—that tribes and nations of the more civilized Ethiopians were ejected by the great Egyptian emigration; and, being pressed onwards by invasions, the colonies which spread from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic ultimately arrived at their present situation through a series of internal wars and emigrations, *positively recorded* (says Mr. B.) *in their own historical traditions*, but otherwise unknown to us.

An elaborate argument follows, to establish a coincidence of laws and customs between the Abyssinians and the Ashantees. The latter, he observes, will be found to have retained the Egyptian superstitions much more perfectly than the Abyssinians, who must have abandoned many of them on their conversion as incompatible with their new religion. These positions are supported with considerable ingenuity and erudition.

While we abstain from entering into these coincidences, we may observe that many of them, as usual in hypotheses of this nature, are remote and faint analogies: but others are strong and striking resemblances, which could not have been casually generated. Human sacrifices were practised by the ancient Egyptians until the reign of Amosis: though Herodotus, as if sceptical of the fact, asks whether it is likely that those who were forbidden to sacrifice animals would sacrifice men? The question is answered by the instance of the Ashantees, who, we now know, sacrifice their fellow-creatures, though they punish with death the killing of a vulture, a hyæna, or any sacred animal.—When an Egyptian of respectability died, all the females of the family daubed their faces and heads with mire, and then paraded the streets in a body; and in Ashantee all the females of the family *daub their faces and breasts with the red earth* of which they build their houses, and then parade the streets, &c. &c.—The freedom and simplicity of the larger ornaments of the Ashantee architecture are, according to Mr. B., truly Egyptian; originating from the

the calyx or corolla of a flower, as *Denon* suggests; or from the young leaves of the immense palm-like filices, representing the volutes of the Ionic capital. Among other drawings, Mr. B. has given the representation of a sandal belonging to a figure on the tombs of the kings at Thebes; and he says that it is precisely Ashantee:—but what he observes to be still more extraordinary and satisfactory is the coincidence between the aggrary beads found by M. *Caillaut* in his excavations at Thebes, and those of Ashantee. He inclines to think that these aggrary beads were emblematic of Osiris.

These are curious and perhaps not unprofitable speculations; though much of this species of learning we are disposed to consider as scarcely better than that strenuous idleness which exercises the mind while it amuses it. Still, whatever may be the estimation to which it is intitled, it bespeaks the industry and research of the present author; whose zeal and affection for the great cause of African civilization have inclined him to set perhaps too high a value on every scintillation of knowledge that is connected with the history, manners, and institutions of the people who are the objects of his investigations.

ART. XVI. *An Analysis of the Natural Classifications of Mammalia*, for the Use of Students and Travellers. By T. EDWARD BOWDICH, Esq., Member of the Wetteravian Society of Natural History. 8vo. pp. 115., and 15 Lithographical Plates by the Author. 15s. sewed. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

ART. XVII. *An Introduction to the Ornithology of Cuvier*, for the Use of Students and Travellers. By the same. 8vo. pp. 94., and 15 Lithographical Plates by the Author. 15s. sewed. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

HERE we have the indefatigable Mr. BOWDICH again, and most laudably exerting himself in a new branch of study, that of natural history; which, however, is so properly connected with his previous pursuits. The common object of these performances is to furnish students and travellers, who may be removed from ready access to the more voluminous and expensive elementary arrangements of mammiferous animals and birds, with a portable and initiatory guide, that may enable them to assign the name and station of those species which may occur to their observation. The merit of such a design, is intitled to every expression of approbation and encouragement, and Mr. B. has accomplished it with conciseness, fidelity, and talent. His divisions and subdivisions are principally and avowedly extracted from *Cuvier's Regna Animal*, to which are annexed tabular and comprehensive forms; while

while valuable additions are interspersed, deduced from the comparative anatomy of the same author, and from the works of *Frederic Cuvier*, *Dumeril*, &c., with explanatory notes and remarks well deserving perusal.

In the present state of natural science, we are not aware that Mr. BOWDICH could have selected a less exceptionable basis of classification than that which has been exhibited by *Cuvier*; although his distributions are occasionally neither those of nature nor of sound philosophy, and his frequent introduction of *subordinate genera* is somewhat illogical. While his more general divisions appear to proceed on the principles of a natural order, the allotments and definitions of his species ultimately assimilate his work to other artificial systems. It would be very desirable, therefore, that some more simple method, founded on prominent external characters merely, should be devised for the purposes of easy recognition and reference; — independently of the considerations of internal structure and economy, those more suitable elements for the construction of a natural series, but which imply a familiar acquaintance with comparative anatomy, the command of leisure, and zeal for observation. — Mr. B., however, has made the most of his existing materials, and has illustrated his text by lithographic plates which are sufficiently characteristic.

These tracts, though composed in English, are printed at *Paris*; and the literal errors, which are not numerous, are mostly corrected with a pen. — An introduction to *Conchology*, including the fossil genera, with 400 figures, announced as in the press, we presume to be the production of the same active-minded traveller; and we learn, also, incidentally, that he is engaged on the elements of *Algebra*, compiled from the best authors, English and French: while he, moreover, contemplates ‘a second travel in Africa.’ He deserves every encouragement and all possible success.

ART. XVIII. *Traité complet de Mécanique, &c.; i. e. a Complete Treatise of Mechanics, applied to the Arts: containing a Methodical Exposition of the Theories and Experiments most Useful for directing the Choice, the Invention, the Construction, and the Employment of every Species of Machine.* By M. J. A. BOURGNIÉ, Engineer. Vol. I. 4to. Paris.

ART. XIX. *Théorie de la Mécanique, &c.; i. e. the Theory of Mechanics, or Introduction to the Study of Mechanics, applied to the Arts.* By M. BOURGNIÉ. 4to. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 1*l.* 1*s.*

THE applications of machinery to the arts, and to the various purposes of life, are so decidedly superior in this country to the state of them in any other, that we looked into the volumes

voluntarily before us with some interest, expecting that M. BORGNIŒ, like M. Dupin, had been visiting our several public establishments and manufactories, and that we should recognize in a foreign dress all the most interesting mechanical applications of England. We soon discovered, however, that, under a high sounding title, the present author intended only to describe that particular application of mechanical force which is employed in the removal and transport of materials, and heavy loads. 'Every species of machine,' therefore, here means only the lever, the pulley, the wedge, the screw, the inclined plane, and some of their most simple combinations, as the crane, capstan, and windlass. Still, we must add that this objection applies principally to the title, as the work itself certainly contains some interesting and curious facts; although it betrays a great poverty of information on certain subjects very generally known in this country.

The treatise is divided into three books: the first of which relates to the simple machines generally employed for the removal of heavy loads; or, in other words, the simple mechanical powers, including the capstan, and various systems of pulleys: of which latter, many that are esteemed the best in this country are not noticed. We have also in this chapter a section devoted to the estimation of the strength of man and brute animals: but it contains nothing more than may be found in Gregory's and other English treatises on mechanics. — The second book commences with a digression on the construction of certain Roman roads, and a comparison between them and some of the great modern roads in different countries of Europe; — on the resistance which the wheels of carriages experience on paved and other ways; — on the rail-ways of England; — and a comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of land and water-carriage. We have then a dissertation on the best method of harnessing horses, the proper direction of the draft, the shafts, and a comparison between four-wheeled and two-wheeled carriages. The author next describes the means employed for the transport of timber from the forests to the arsenals in which it is to be used: including a description of certain inclined planes adopted in some mountainous districts, and along which the timber descends merely by its own gravity. Had M. BORGNIŒ been acquainted with the works carrying on in England, this would have been a very appropriate place for describing the celebrated stacking machine at Chatham, constructed by Mr. Brunel, to which we have referred in our account of M. Dupin's work on the English marine. (See our last Appendix.)

A similar remark applies to the author's next chapter, on the transport of stone from the quarries to its point of embark-

embarkation, &c., where we find not a word on the highly ingenious method of conducting this operation in the construction of the Breakwater at Plymouth;—and the same defect is observable in most of the author's descriptions of the modern means of transport.

In the historical account of the means employed by the antients for the removal and erection of some of their stupendous columns, we find a portion of interesting information; although, even in this chapter, we have still the same deficiency as in the former, when the author attempts the description of the means employed for launching a ship, and for hauling a vessel out of the water on a slip, for repairs, &c. Here, again, he certainly takes us back at least half a century. In short, the only part of this work which we can conceive to possess any interest is that of which we have just spoken, viz. on the means employed by the antients in the transport and removal of some of their largest columns, statues, &c. The removal of the rock for the base of the statue of Peter the Great is also well illustrated, but not better than we find it in other well-known works. — The plates, twenty in number, are very neatly executed, without shading.

From this analysis of M. BORGNIS's first volume, we think it will appear that the work by no means corresponds with its title-page; and that, though it may contain some useful information, it might have afforded much more, and does not now form a publication from which an English engineer is likely to derive material benefit.

The second volume, as it may be called, though not so marked, has the same characteristics with the first. It describes some of the most usual applications of mechanics to machinery, but we must consider it as very deficient in many principal points. It is divided into four books, of which the first contains the fundamental principles of statics, dynamics, hydrostatics, and hydrodynamics: the second develops the theory of first movers, of resistance, &c.; the third treats of the 'intermediary' parts of machines, viz. those parts through which the power is communicated; and the last relates to the principles of equilibrium in walls, revetements, piles, vaults, the strength of materials, &c.

It has been too general with French authors to make so great a display of deep mathematical science, that their compositions are not adapted to be read by those who are engaged in the practical part of the subject to which they refer: but M. BORGNIS has unquestionably steered clear of this defect, and therefore has produced a work of some utility to persons employed in practical mechanics in his own country.

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